



634 E.d.

THE LIBRARY
UNIVERSITY OF
WESTERN ONTARIO



THE J. D. BARNETT
TEXT-BOOK COLLECTION

University of Western Ontario
LIBRARY

LONDON - CANADA

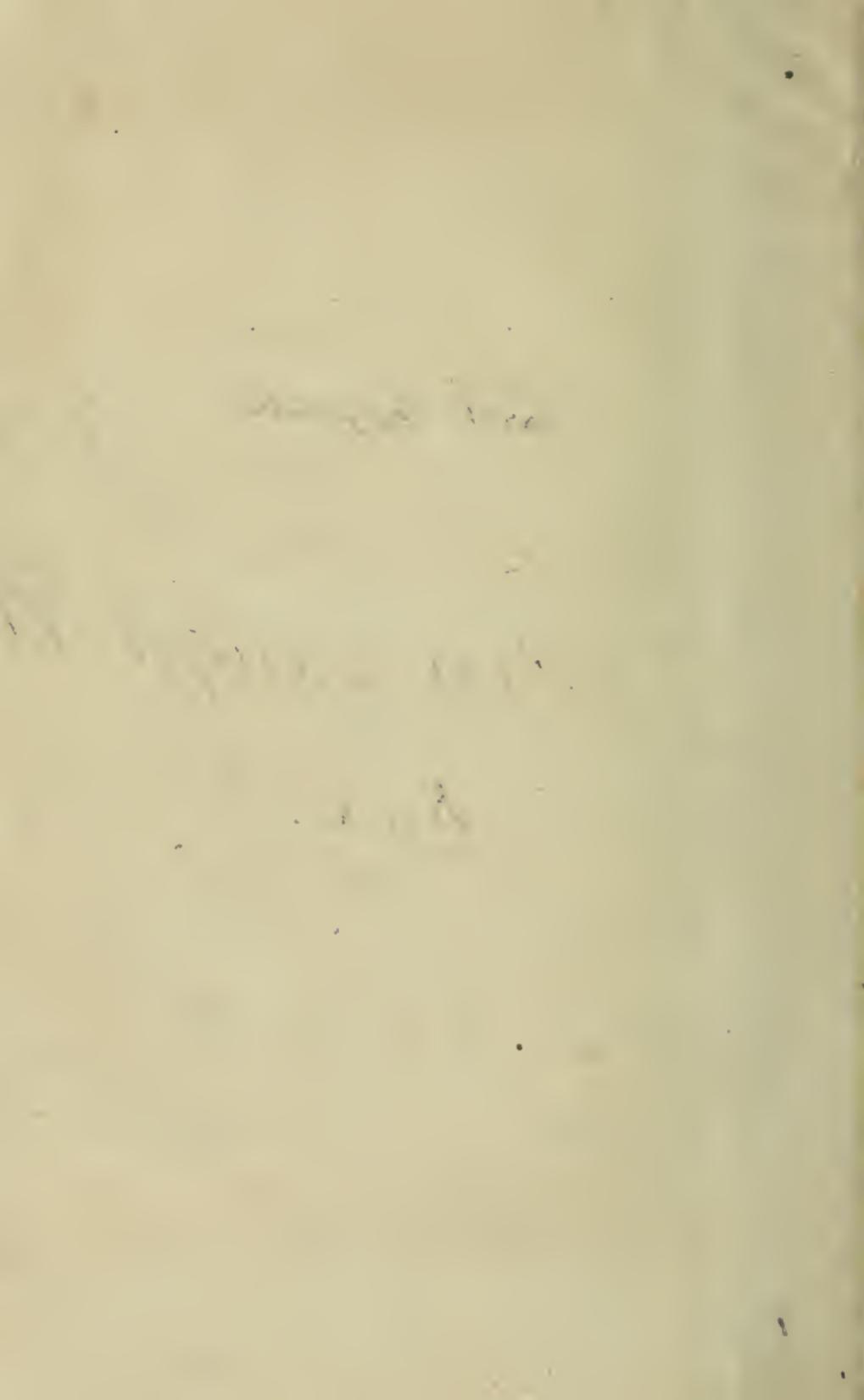
Class

L71001

925 B93

1865

Sarah Campbell's
Book
London
Jany 29th 1864



AN

ANALYTICAL

AND

PRACTICAL GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

REVISED, CORRECTED, AND IMPROVED.

BY REV. PETER BULLIONS, D. D.,

LATE PROFESSOR OF LANGUAGES IN THE ALBANY ACADEMY, AND AUTHOR OF THE
SERIES OF GRAMMARS, GREEK, LATIN, AND ENGLISH, ON THE SAME PLAN, ETC.

EIGHTEENTH EDITION.

8

TORONTO :

ADAM MILLER, 62 KING STREET EAST.

1865.

T810

P R E F A C E .

THIS work is prepared on a more extended plan than the "Principles of English Grammar," and is intended to occupy a higher place in the "Series of Grammars, English, Latin, and Greek, on the same plan." Since that work was first published, a greater interest has been taken in the subject of education generally than for a long period before. Difference of opinion, on various subjects, has led to discussion—discussion to investigation—and investigation to the discovery and establishment of truth. As a consequence of this, that which was sound and stable before has been confirmed—many points that were doubtful have been settled—new and improved methods of investigating subjects, and of imparting instruction, have been adopted—and the whole subject of education, in both theory and practice, has been advanced much beyond what it was at any former period. In this onward progress, the subject of English grammar has not been left behind. Teachers in both higher and lower seminaries have given it their attention—authorities have been compared—original investigations have been made—views have been interchanged, privately and through the press—all resulting in the advancement of this branch of study.

The subject of ANALYSIS, wholly omitted in the former work, is here introduced in its proper place, and to an extent in accordance with its importance. Many questions on disputed points have been examined with much care; and something, it is hoped, has been done to contribute to their settlement; and when this required more space than was proper to be taken up in the body of the work, the discussion has been thrown into the Appendix. A much greater variety of exercises has been introduced at every step, with directions for the manner of using them. To every part of speech, an oral exercise, of the inductive kind, has been annexed as a specimen of the way in which the mind of the learner may be trained to think and reason on the subject, and prepared to profit more by the exercises that follow.

By adopting the plan of a running series of numbers to mark the paragraphs, reference from one part to another is rendered more convenient, and is employed wherever it was thought to be profitable.

The Syntax is much fuller than in the former work; and though the rules are not different, they are arranged in a different order, so that all that belongs to one subject is collected under one head, instead of being

scattered in different places; and the proper subordination of parts is exhibited in a series of subordinate rules, wherever it was necessary. In this way the whole is rendered more compact—the number of leading rules is reduced—and the unity of each subject is better preserved.

In the rules and definitions throughout, accuracy, brevity, euphony, and adaptation to the practical operations of the school-room, have been particularly attended to. No startling novelties have been introduced; at the same time, where it was thought that a *change* would be an *improvement*, it has been made. It was felt that a work on this subject, of a higher grade, and more suited to the wants of higher seminaries, and more advanced students, without detracting from its simplicity and practical character, was wanted, and the aim has been to supply this want; while, at the same time, its relation to the series of which it is intended to form a part, has not only been preserved, but rendered more close and intimate.

With a grateful sense of past kindnesses, the author now commits the results of his labors to the favorable consideration of a candid and enlightened public, and especially to that of the *Teachers* throughout the United States.

PREFACE TO REVISED EDITION.

NEW plates for this work having become necessary, the opportunity thus presented for a thorough revision has been embraced. In this revision, the object aimed at has been, not to change, but to improve. For this end, criticisms and suggestions from various quarters, especially from practical teachers, have been duly, and it is hoped profitably considered; greater precision and clearness of expression, in some places, have been studied; errors not formerly noticed have been corrected; numerous references from one part to another for illustration by means of the running paragraph numbers, have been inserted; technical terms have been more fully explained by definition or reference; additions have been made, where thought necessary, without interfering with the arrangement or character of the work; several articles have been inserted in the Appendix, to which proper references are made from the body of the work; and a larger type has been adopted instead of the smallest size formerly used. No pains have been spared to render the whole as complete in its details, and as attractive in its appearance as it can be made without increasing the size or the expense of the work, and to render it a text-book for academies and schools fitted to relieve both teachers and their pupils from much unnecessary labor and waste of time in prosecuting this branch of learning.

TROY, N. Y., 1862.

INDEX AND TABLE OF CONTENTS.

GRAMMAR, Definition and Division of	PAGE 9
PART I.—ORTHOGRAPHY.	
Letters, Division and Power of	10
Syllables	12
Spelling, Rules for	13-15
Capitals, Use of	16
PART II.—ETYMOLOGY.	
Words, General Divisions of	17
Parsing of	18
Parts of Speech	18
NOUNS, Definition and Division of	19
Observations on, and Kinds of	19
Accidents of	20
Person of—Observation on	21
Gender of	22
Observations on	23
Exercises on	24
Number, Definition of	25
Plural, Rules for	25
Irregular	26
Observations on	29
Exercises on	26, 29
Case of, General Rules for	31, 32
Nominative, Use of	32
Construction of	163, 164, 165, 170
Possessive, Use of—how formed	32
Observations on	32
Construction of	181
Objective, Use of	32
Governed by Active Transitive Verbs	171
Prepositions	174
Without a governing Word	176
Declension of	32
Parsing of, and Oral Exercises on	34
Exercises on	35
ARTICLE, Parsing of, and Exercises on	36, 37
Construction of	154
ADJECTIVES, Definition and Division of	38
Numeral, Classes of	39
Comparison of	39
Rules for	40
Irregular	41
Not compared	42
Parsing of, and Oral Exercises on	42, 43
Exercises on	44
Construction of	149

PRONOUNS, Definition and Division of	PAGE 45
Personal, simple, Declension of	45, 46
Observations on.....	46
Compound	48
Parsing of, and Oral Exercises on	49
Exercises on	49
Construction of	158
Relative, Declension and Use of.....	50-52
Compound	52
Parsing of, and Exercises on.....	53, 54
Construction of	161
Interrogative and Responsive of	54
Parsing of, and Exercises on.....	55
Adjective, Definition and Division of	55, 56
Possessive of	56
Distributive of	57
Demonstrative of	57
Indefinite of	57
Parsing of, and Exercises on	58, 59
Construction of.....	142
VERBS, Definition of	60
Transitive and Intransitive.....	60
Oral and other Exercises on	61
Division of	63
Auxiliary, Use of—"Shall," "Will," &c.....	62, 63, 64, 65
Exercises on.....	66
Anomalous Use of	66
Inflection of, Accidents of	67
Voice, Active	67
Passive	67
Moods, Division of	69
Indicative	69
Potential	70
Subjunctive.....	70
Construction of	185
Imperative	71
Infinitive	71
Construction of	186-188
Tenses, Division of	72
Of the Indicative Mood.....	72, 74
Of the Potential Mood	75
Of the Subjunctive Mood	75-76
Of the Imperative Mood	77
Of the Infinitive Mood	77
Construction of	186
Connection of.....	193
Participles, Division of	78
in <i>ing</i> in a passive sense	78
as a Verbal Noun	79
Construction of	190, 191

VERBS, Number and Person of	PAGE 79
Conjugation of	80
Of the Irregular Verb "to be"	82
Of the Regular Verb "to love," active Voice	86
Oral Exercises and Exercises on.....	88, 89
Negative Form	91
Interrogative Form	92
Progressive Form	93
Exercises on.....	93
Passive Voice	94
Observations on, Exercises on	96
Parsing of	85
Irregular.....	97
Defective.....	102
Impersonal.....	103
Exercises.....	103, 104
Construction of.....	165-167
ADVERBS, Definition of.....	104
Classification of	105
Formation and Derivation of.....	106
Comparison of	107
Parsing of, and Exercises on.....	107, 108
Construction of	195-197
PREPOSITIONS, Definition and List of	109, 110
Observations on	110
Parsing of, and Exercises on	111
Construction of.....	174-177
INTERJECTIONS, Definition and List of	112
Parsing	112
Construction of	203, 204
CONJUNCTIONS, Definition and Division of	113
Observations on	113
Parsing of, and Exercises on	113, 114
Construction of	199
Parsing, Different Kinds of	115
Etymological Method of	115
Model of.....	116-119
Exercises in	120-125
PART III.—SYNTAX.	
SYNTAX, definitions	128
SENTENCES, different Kinds of	128
I. Analysis of	127
A Simple Sentence, its Parts.....	127
Subject of	129
Modifications of	130
Of modifying words	131
Predicate of	132
Modifications of	133
Compound, Definition of.....	134
Clauses of, different Kinds.....	135

SENTENCES, Clauses, Connection of	PAGE	135
Abridged Propositions.....		137
Analysis, Directions for		138
Models of		139
Exercises in		142
II. Construction of, General Principles.....		143
SYNTAX, Parts of.....		144
Rules of		144-148
RULES.		
I Substantives in Apposition		148
II Adjective with a Substantive		149
Comparatives and Superlatives		151
III Article and its Noun		154
IV Pronoun and its Antecedent, Special Rules		158
V Relative and its Antecedent.....		161
VI The Subject Nominative		163
VII The Nominative, Absolute or Independent, Special Rules.....		164
VIII The Verb and its Subject or Nominative		165
Special Rules for		166, 167
IX The Predicate Nominative		170
X The Objective governed by Verbs		171
Special Rules		171, 172
XI The Objective governed by Prepositions.....		174
without a governing Word		176
XII Prepositions after certain Words		177
XIII Possessive governed by Substantives		181
XIV Subjunctive Mood		185
XV Infinitive Mood		186
Special Rules		187, 188
XVI Participles		190
Special Rules		190, 191
XVII Connection of Tenses.....		193
XVIII Adverbs—Special Rules		195, 196, 197
XIX Conjunctions		199
Special Rules		200, 201
XX Interjections		203
General Rule.....		203
Ellipses—when admissible		205
when not admissible		206
Parsing, syntactical, Definition of, Model of		208
Exercises, promiscuous, on Rules of Syntax.....		210-214
Improper Expressions, List of		214, 215
PUNCTUATION		215
Comma, Rules for		216
Semicolon, do		217
Colon, do		218
Period.....		219
Interrogation		219
Other Marks used in Writing		219, 220
FIGURES, different Kinds of		221
Of Etymology and Syntax		221
Of Rhetoric		222
Poetic License		223-225
PART IV.—PROSODY.		
PROSODY, Division of.....		226
Elocution		226
Versification.....		227
Feet		227
Poetic Pauses		234
COMPOSITION		235
The Use of Grammar in Composition		236
The Law of Language.....		236
Rules for		238
Hints for correct and elegant Writing		238
Themes for Composition.....		243
APPENDIX		246

GRAMMAR.

1. GRAMMAR is both a SCIENCE and an ART.
2. As a SCIENCE, it investigates the principles of language in general: as an ART, it teaches the right method of applying these principles to a particular language, so as thereby to express our thoughts in a correct and proper manner, according to established usage.
3. ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety.
4. Language is either spoken or written.
5. The elements of spoken language, are vocal and articulate sounds.
(25 and 26.)
6. The elements of written language, are characters or letters which represent these sounds.
7. Letters are formed into syllables and words; words into sentences; and by these, properly uttered or written, men communicate their thoughts to each other.
8. GRAMMAR is divided into four parts; namely, *Orthography*, *Etymology*, *Syntax*, and *Prosody*.
9. *Orthography* treats of letters and syllables;* *Etymology*, of words; *Syntax*, of sentences; and *Prosody*, of elocution and versification.

* Orthography is properly a part of Grammar, as it belongs to "the art of speaking and writing a language with propriety." Yet as the whole subject is treated more fully in the spelling-book and dictionary, a brief synopsis of its principles only is here given, rather as a matter of *form*, than with a view to its being particularly studied at this stage. The teacher may therefore, if he thinks proper, pass over PART I. for the present, and begin with PART II.

PART I.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

10. ORTHOGRAPHY treats of letters, and of the mode of combining them into syllables and words.

11. A letter is a mark, or character, used to represent an elementary sound of the human voice.

12. There are *Twenty-six* letters in the English Alphabet.

13. Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

14. A *Vowel* is a letter which represents a simple *inarticulate* sound (25); and, in a word or syllable, may be sounded alone. The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y* not before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in *law, bay*.

15. A *Consonant* is a letter which represents an *articulate* sound (26); and, in a word or syllable, is never sounded alone, but always in connection with a vowel. The consonants are *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and *w* and *y* before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in *war, youth*.

16. A *Diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one sound. Diphthongs are of two kinds, proper and improper.

17. A *Proper Diphthong* is one in which both the vowels are sounded, as *ou*, in *out*; *oi*, in *oil*; *ow*, in *cow*.

18. An *Improper Diphthong*, or *digraph*, is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded, as *ou* in *court*, *oa* in *boat*.

19. A *Triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one sound, as *eau* in *beauty*.

THE POWERS OF LETTERS.

20. In analyzing words into their elementary sounds, it is necessary to distinguish between the *name* of a letter and its *power*.

21. The *name* of a letter is that by which it is usually called; as *A, bē, sē, dē*. &c.

22. The *power* of a letter is the effect which it has, either by itself, or combined with other letters, in forming a word or syllable.

23. Each of the vowels has several powers. Several letters have the same power; and certain powers or elements of words are represented by a combination of two letters.

24. The elementary powers or sounds in the English language are about *forty*, and are divided into *Vocals*, represented by vowels and

diphthongs; and *Subvocals* and *Aspirates*, represented by consonants, single or combined.

25. VOCALS are *inarticulate* sounds produced by the organs of voice, with the mouth more or less open, and with no change, or but slight change, of position in the organs of speech.

26. SUBVOCALS are sounds produced by the organs of voice, *articulated* or modified by certain changes in the position of the organs of speech.

27. ASPIRATES are mere whispering sounds without vocality, but which still have an audible effect in the enunciation of words. They are all articulate except *h*.

28. The elementary powers of letters can not be exhibited to the eye, but must be learned from the living voice.

29. The NAME of a vowel is always one of its powers (except *w* and *y*), and if from the name of a consonant, we take away the vowel sound, what remains is generally the power of that consonant, except *w* and *y*.

30. A full view of the elementary powers of letters in the formation of words, is exhibited in the following table. In the words annexed as examples, the letter whose power is indicated is printed in Italic. By pronouncing the word distinctly, and then leaving out all but the power of the Italic letter, and uttering that alone, we have the power of that letter.

31. TABLE of Elementary Sounds in the English Language.

VOCALS.	SUBVOCALS.	ASPIRATES.
A. ale, able.	B. bat, orb.	F. fix.
A. art.	D. do, did.	H. hat.
A. all.	G. gone, dog.	K. keep, book.
A. at.	J. judge.	P. pen, top.
E. me.	L. lie.	S. sun.
E. met, egg.	M. man.	T. top, bat.
I. ire.	N. no.	Th. faith.
I. in.	NG. ring.	Sh. show.
O. old.	R. * rope, far.	Ch. chide.
O. move. ooze.	Th. this.	Wh. when.
O. odd.	V. van.	
U. tune, use.	W. we.	
U. up.	Y. yes.	
U. full.	Z. zinc.	
Ou. thou.	Z. azure.	

* R before a vowel has a hard or trilling sound; as, *rat*, *rough*; after a vowel, a soft and liquid sound; as, *arm*, *far*.

32. Certain letters in the English Alphabet have the same power as others in the preceding table, and may therefore be called *Equivalents*. Equivalents of vowels and diphthongs are numerous.

33. Of the Subvocals and Aspirates, eight pairs are *Correlatives*. In sounding the first of any of these pairs, the organs of voice* and speech are in the same position as in sounding its fellow, but the first, or subvocal, has vocality; the second, or aspirate, has not.

34. TABLE of Equivalents and Correlatives.

EQUIVALENTS.		CORRELATIVES.	
		Subvocals.	Aspirates.
W	=u	cow. mew.	V. vow.
Y	=i	tyrant, system.	G. gone.
C hard	=k	cat.	B. bat.
Q	=k	liquor.	Z. zinc.
C soft	=s	cent.	D. do.
G soft	=j	gin.	Th. this.
X	=ks	fiv.	Z. azure.
			J. judge.

35. These elementary sounds of the human voice, sometimes simple, but more commonly combined, are formed into *syllables* and *words*.

—

SYLLABLES.

36. A *Syllable* is a certain vocal or articulate sound, uttered by one impulse of the voice, and represented by one or more letters, as, *farm*, *farm-er*, *ea-gle*, *a-e-ri-al*.

37. Every word contains as many syllables as it has distinct vocal sounds, as *gram-ma-ri-an*.

38. A word of one syllable is called a *Monosyllable*.

39. A word of two syllables is called a *Dissyllable*.

40. A word of three syllables is called a *Trisyllable*.

41. A word of more than three syllables is called a *Polysyllable*.

*The *Organs of voice* are those parts (called by physiologists the larynx and its appendages) which are employed in the production of simple vocal sounds.

The *Organs of speech* are those parts employed to articulate or modify whispering or vocal sounds. These are the tongue, lips, teeth, and palate.

DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

42. The division of words into syllables is called *Syllabication*.

GENERAL RULE.

43. Place together in distinct syllables, those letters which make up the separate parts or divisions of a word, as heard in its correct pronunciation.

44. The only definite rules of much value on this subject are the following:—

45. Rule 1. Two or more consonants forming but one elementary sound, are never separated; such as, *ch*, *tch*, *th*, *sh*, *ng*, *ph*, *wh*, *gh* silent, or sounding *f*, *lk* sounding *k*, &c.; as, *church-es*, *watch-es*, *wor-thy*, *fish-es*, *sing-ing*, *philoso-phy*, *sigh-ing*, *cough-ing*, *walk-ing*.

46. Rule 2. The terminations, *cean*, *cian*, *ceous*, *cious*, *cial*, *tion*, *tious*, *tial*, *geon*, *gian*, *geous*, *sion*, are hardly ever divided; as, *o-cean*, *gra-cious*, *na-tion*, *coura-geous*, &c.

47. Rule 3. Compound words are divided into their simple ones; as, *rail-road*, *bee-hive*, *hope-less*, *thank-ful*, &c.

48. Rule 4. The terminations of words, when they form a syllable, are usually separated from their roots; as, *writ-er*, *teach-es*, *think-ing*, *cold-er*, *old-est*.

49. Two separate words combined as one name, are usually separated by a hyphen; as, *rail-road*, *glass-house*, *bee-hive*.

50. In writing, a word of more than one syllable may be divided at the end of a line, but a monosyllable or a syllable, never.

SPELLING.

51. SPELLING is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters.

52. The Orthography of the English language is so anomalous, and in many cases arbitrary, that proficiency in it can be acquired only by practice, and the use of the spelling-book or dictionary. The following rules are of a general character, though even to these there may be a few exceptions:—

GENERAL RULES FOR SPELLING WORDS.

RULE I.

53. Monosyllables ending with *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant; as, *staff*, *mill*, *pass*.

54. *Exceptions.*—Of, if, as, is; has, was, his, gas, yes, this, us, thus, pus.

RULE II.

55. Words ending with any consonant except *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter; as, *sit*, *not*, *up*, *put*, *that*, *in*.

56. *Exceptions.*—Add, bunn, butt, buzz, ebb, egg, err, inu, odd, purr.

RULE III.

57. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* before an additional letter or syllable; as, *spy*, *spies*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; *carry*, *carrier*, *carried*; *fancy*, *fanciful*.

58. *Exception 1.*—But *y* is not changed before *ing*; as, *deny*, *denying*.

59.—2. Words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* unchanged; as, *boy*, *boys*, *boyish*, *boyhood*.

Exception 3.—But *lay*, *pay*, *say*, make *laid*, *paid*, *said*; and *day* makes *daily*.

RULE IV.

60. Monosyllables and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *rob*, *robber*; *admit*, *admittance*, *admitted*.

Exception.—But *x* and *h* are never doubled.

61. But when a diphthong or a double vowel precedes, or the accent is not on the last syllable, the consonant is not doubled; as, *boil*, *boiling*, *boiler*; *wool*, *woolen*; *fool*, *foolish*; *visit*, *visited*.

62. *Exceptions.*—In about fifty words ending in *l* with a vowel before it, and not accented on the last syllable, many writers, contrary to analogy and without necessity, double the *l* improperly before an additional syllable. These are such words as *travel*, *traveller*, *travelling*, *travelled*.*

63. So also *s* and *p* are generally, though improperly, doubled in *bias*, *worship*, and *kidnap*; as, *biassing*, *worshipper*, *kidnapping*. Webster, and many writers following him, in these words conform to the general rule.

* The words referred to are the following: Apparel, bevel, bowel, cancel, carol, civil, channcl, chisel, counsel, cudgel, dishevel, drivel, duel, embowel, enamel, empanel, equal, gambol, gravel, grovel, handsel, hatchel, imperil, jewel, kennel, lable, level, libel, marshal, marvel, model, panel, parcel, pencil, peril, pistol, pommeil, quarrel, ravel, revel, rival, rowel, shovel, shrivel, snivel, tassel, trammel, travcl, tunnel, unravel.

RULE V.

64. Words ending with *ll* drop one *l* before the terminations *less* and *ly*, to prevent trebling; as, *skill*, *skilless*; *full*, *fully*; and some writers, before *ness* and *ful*; as, *fulness*, *skilful*.

65. But words ending in any other double letter, preserve the letter double before *less*, *ly*, *ness*, and *ful*; as, *harmlessly*, *stifly*, *gruffness*, &c.

RULE VI.

66. Silent *e* is preserved before the terminations, *ment*, *less*, *ly*, and *ful*; as, *paleness*, *peaceful*, *abatement*, &c.

67. *Exceptions.*—Duly, truly, awful, and generally, judgment, acknowledgement, lodgment, abidgment, are excepted. Argument from the Latin *argumentum*, is not an exception.

RULE VII.

68. Silent *e* is omitted before terminations beginning with a vowel; as, *slave*, *slavish*; *cure*, *curable*; *sense*, *sensible*; *lodge*, *lodging*; *love*, *lovest*.

69. *Blame*, *move*, *reprove*, *sale*, and their compounds, sometimes, though improperly, retain *e* before *able*; as, *blameable*, &c.

70. But words ending in *ge* and *ce* retain *e* before *able*, in order to preserve the soft sound of *g* and *c*; as, *changeable*, *peaceable*, &c. For the same reason we have *singeing*, and *swingeing*: *dye* has *dyeing*, to distinguish it from *dying*. So also words ending with *c* hard insert *k* before a syllable beginning with *e* or *i* to preserve the hard sound; as, *frolic*, *frollicked*, *frolicking*.

71. The letters *ie* at the end of a word, are changed into *y* before *ing*; as, *die*, *dying*; *lie*, *lying*.

RULE VIII.

72. Simple words, ending in *ll*, when joined to other words generally drop one *l*, when they lose the accent; as, *awful*, *hopeful*, *handful*, *careful*, *already*.

73. But when they are under the accent, the double *l* should be retained: as, *fulfill*, *wilfull*, *recall*, *foretell*. But, *until*, *welcome*, *always*, *also*, *withal*, *therewithal*, *wherewithal*, have single *l*.

74. In words under this rule, however, usage is far from uniform—*fulfil*, and *fulfill*; *willful* and *wilful*; *recal* and *recall*; *foretel* and *foretell*, and similar varieties are common.

75. Other compounded words are generally spelled in the same manner as the simple words of which they are formed; as, *glass-house*, *mill-wright*, *thereby*.

76. Many words in English admit of two or more different modes of spelling; as, *connection*, *connexion*; *enquire*, *inquire*; *chemistry*, *chymistry*, &c. In such cases, prevailing usage and analogy must be our guides.

CAPITALS.

77. Formerly every noun began with a capital letter, both in writing and in printing; but at present only the following words begin with capital letters:—

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or of any other piece of writing.

2. The first word after a period; also after a note of interrogation, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.

But if several interrogatory or exclamatory sentences are so connected, that the latter sentences depend on the former, all of them, except the first, may begin with a small letter; as, “How doth the city sit solitary, that was full of people! *how* are her habitations become as desolate! *how* is she become as a widow!

3. Proper names, titles of office or honor; as, *George Washington, General Lee, Judge Story, Sir Walter Scott, America, the Ohio, Pratt, Woodford & Co., Pearl Street, New York.*

4. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals.

5. The first word of every line in poetry.

6. The appellations of the Deity; as, *God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, &c.*

7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as, *Grecian, Roman, English, &c.*

8. The first word of a direct quotation (1124), when the quotation would form a complete sentence by itself; as, “Always remember this ancient maxim: ‘*Know thyself!*’”

When a quotation is not introduced in the direct form (1125), but follows a comma, the first word must not begin with a capital; as, “Solomon observes, that ‘*pride goes before destruction.*’”

9. Common nouns when personified; as, “Come, gentle *Spring.*”

10. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books; as, “*Euclid's Elements of Geometry;*” “*Goldsmith's Deserted Village.*”

78. Other words, besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatical, or the principal subject of the composition.

PART II.

ETYMOLOGY.

79. ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivations.

WORDS.

80. A WORD is an articulate sound used by common consent as the sign of an idea.

81. A few words consist of vowel or vowel sounds only, without articulation ; as, *I, ah, awe, oh, owe, eye*, &c.

82.—1. Words, in respect of their *Formation*, are either *Primitive* or *Derivative*, *Simple* or *Compound*.

83. A *Primitive* word is one that is not derived from any other word in the language ; as, *boy, just, father*.

84. A *Derivative* word is one that is derived from some other word ; as, *boyish, justice, fatherly*.

85. A *Simple* word is one that is not combined with any other word ; as, *man, house, city*.

86. A *Compound* word is one that is made up of two or more simple words ; as, *manhood, horseman*.

87.—2. Words, in respect of *Form*, are either *Declinable* or *Indeclinable*.

88. A *Declinable* word is one which undergoes certain changes of *form* or *termination*, to express the different relations of gender, number, case, degree, voice, mood, tense, person ; usually termed in Grammar, ACCIDENTS ; as, *man, men ; love, loves, loved, &c.*

89. In the changes which they undergo, Nouns and Pronouns are said to be *declined*, Verbs, to be *inflected* or *conjugated* (473.)

90. An *Indeclinable* word is one which undergoes no change of form ; as, *good, some, perhaps*.

91.—3. In respect of *Signification* and *Use*, words are divided into different classes, called *Parts of Speech*.

92. The principle according to which words are classified is their *use*, or the part they perform in the expression of thought. Words which are names of objects are classed as *nouns*; those which qualify nouns are *adjectives*; those which attribute an action or state to some subject are *verbs*, &c. Hence, when the same word is used for different purposes—at one time as a *name*, at another to *qualify* a noun, and at another to express an *action* or *state*—it should, in parsing, be assigned to that class of words, the office of which it performs for the time: thus, “Before *honor* [noun] is humility.” “*Honor* [verb] thy father and thy mother.”

93. PARSING is the art of resolving a sentence into its elements or parts of speech (574, 575).

94. Parsing is distinguished into *Etymological* and *Syntactical*.

95. A word is parsed *Etymologically* by stating the class of words to which it belongs, with its *accidents* or grammatical properties.

96. A word is parsed *Syntactically* by stating, in addition, the relation in which it stands to other words, and the rules according to which they are combined in phrases and sentences.

97. These two, though related, are perfectly distinct, and should not be mixed up in the early part of the student's course, by anticipating at the outset what he can be supposed to know only at a more advanced stage. Such a course may *seem* to be more intellectual, but its tendency is only to perplex and darken the subject. *Let the student learn one thing at a time, each thing thoroughly in its proper order, and continue to combine things learned, as far as it can be done without anticipating what is future.* In this way the process will be simple and easy; every step will be taken in the light, and when completed, the result will be satisfactory. Besides, the student must be able to parse etymologically with great ease and promptness, before he can with any advantage begin the study of syntax. This promptness he will acquire in a very short time, and almost without effort, if the class is properly drilled on the exercises furnished at every step in the following pages.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

98. THE PARTS OF SPEECH in English are nine, viz. : *Noun, Article, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Interjection, and Conjunction*.

99. Of these, the *Noun, Pronoun*, and *Verb*, are declined; the rest are indeclinable, (88–90).

NOUNS.

100. A Noun is the *name* of any person, place, or thing ; as, *John, London, book*. Hence,

The names of *persons, places, or things*, are Nouns.

101. Nouns are of two kinds, *Proper* and *Common*.

102. A *Proper Noun* is the name applied to an individual only ; as *John, London, America, the Ohio*.

103. A *Common Noun* is a name applied to all things of the same sort ; as, *man, chair, table, book*.

104. REMARKS.—Proper nouns are used to distinguish individuals of the same class from one another. Common nouns distinguish *sorts* or *classes*, and are equally applicable to all things of the same class. Thus, the common noun *boy* is equally applicable to *all* objects of that class ; but the proper nouns *John, James, Robert, &c.*, are applicable only to *particular individuals* of a class.

OBSERVATIONS ON NOUNS.

105. When a proper noun is used to denote a whole class, it becomes common, and generally has an article before it ; as, “The twelve *Cæsars*,” “He is the *Cicero* of his age,” “A *Daniel* come to judgment.” *A Campbell*, i.e., one of the Campbells.

106. Common nouns become proper when personified (1046, 1), and also when used as proper names ; as, *Hail, Liberty ! The Park*.

107. Under common nouns are usually ranked,—

1. *Collective nouns*, or nouns of multitude, which signify many in the singular number ; as, *army, people*.
2. *Abstract nouns*, or names of qualities ; as, *piety, wickedness*.
3. *Verbal nouns*, or the names of actions, &c. ; as, *reading, writing, sleeping*.
4. *Diminutive nouns*, or nouns derived from other nouns, and denoting a small one of the kind ; as, *stream, streamlet ; leaf, leaflet ; hill, hillock, &c.*

108. To the class of nouns belongs everything, whether word, letter, mark, or character, of which we can think, speak, or write, regarded merely as an object of thought, even when, as sometimes happens, we do not give it a name. Thus, when we say, “*Good*” is an adjective, *a* is a vowel, *b* is a consonant, *A* is a capital, *4* is an even number, $\frac{1}{2}$ is a fraction, $?$ is a mark of interrogation, $+$ is the sign of addition, $-$ of subtraction, $=$ of equality—*Good, a, b, A, 4, $\frac{1}{2}$, ?, +, -, =*, are all to be regarded as nouns.

109. REMARK.—A noun is also called a *substantive*. But this term for convenience is here used in a more comprehensive sense, to mean a *noun*, a *personal pronoun*, or a *phrase* used as a noun, and usually called “*a substantive phrase*.” Thus, in such a rule as this, “An adjective qualifies the substantive,” &c., the word *substantive* may mean either a noun, or pronoun, or substantive phrase.

EXERCISES.*

1. In the following list, distinguish proper nouns from common, and give a reason for the distinction:—

Albany, city, tree, nation, France, Philip, dog, horse, house, garden, Dublin, Edinburgh, London, river, Hudson, Ohio, Thames, countries, America, England, Ireland, Spain, sun, moon, stars, planets, Jupiter, Venus, Mars, man, woman, boy, girl, John, James, Mary, Susan, mountain, stream, valley.

2. In the following sentences, point out the nouns. Say why they are nouns; tell whether they are proper or common, and why. Thus, “*Table*,” a noun, because the name of a thing; common, because applied to all things of the same sort.

The table and chairs in this room belong to John; the book-case, writing-desk, and books, to his brother.—Time and tide wait for no man.—The largest city in Europe is London; in America, New York.—The northern states produce wheat, oats, barley, rye, corn, and potatoes; while cotton, tobacco, rice and sugar, are the products of the south.

3. Write down ten nouns, or names of persons or things, and say something respecting each, so as to make a sentence; thus:—

Summer—*summer* is the warmest season of the year.

4. Tell what words in the sentences so made, are nouns, and why; which are proper, or common, and why.

ACCIDENTS OF THE NOUN.

110. The accidents of nouns are *Person*, *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*.

NOTE.—These accidents belong also to personal and relative pronouns (239).

* The exercises furnished here, and throughout this work, are intended merely as a specimen of the way in which the leading truths and facts in Grammar may be wrought into the minds of pupils, by means of exercises properly devised. It is not, however, expected or desired that the teacher should limit himself to these. Every active and ingenious teacher will devise such new and various methods of exercising his pupils as their age, capacity, and circumstances, and his own judgment and experience may suggest, as best calculated to *draw out* their powers, and cultivate in them a habit of thinking and reasoning for themselves.

PERSON.

111. PERSON, in Grammar, is the distinction of nouns as used in discourse, to denote the speaker, the person or thing spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. (120). Hence,

112. There are three persons, called *First*, *Second*, and *Third*.

113. A noun is in the *first* person, when it denotes the speaker; as, "I, Paul, have written it."

114. A noun is in the *second* person, when it denotes the person or thing addressed; as, "Thou, God, seest me."—"Hail, Liberty!"

115. A noun is in the *third* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "Washington was brave."—"Truth is mighty."

116. REMARK.—The third person is used sometimes for the *first*; as, "thy servant became surely for the lad to my father." Gen. xliv. 32. Sometimes, particularly in the language of supplication, it is used for the *second*; as, "O let not the Lord be angry." Gen. xviii. 30. "Will the Lord bless us!"

OBSERVATIONS ON PERSON.

117. The first and the second person can belong only to nouns denoting persons, or things personified; because persons only can speak or be spoken to. The *third* person may belong to all nouns, because every object, whether person or thing, may be spoken of.

118. A noun can be the subject of a verb (595), only in the *third* person. A noun in the *first* or *second* person is never used as the subject of a verb, but only in apposition (668) with the *first* or *second* personal pronoun, for the sake of explanation or emphasis; and sometimes in the *second* person, without a pronoun, as the object addressed.

119. A noun in the predicate (600), is generally, though not always, in the *third* person, even when the subject is in the *first* or *second*; as, "I am Alpha," &c., "who is." So with the pronouns *I* and *thou*; as, "I am he." "Thou art the man."

120. REMARK.—PERSON makes no change either in the meaning or form of a noun, but simply denotes the manner in which it is used, as above stated. Moreover, as the name of the speaker, or of the person spoken to, is seldom expressed (the pronouns *I* and *thou*, *we* and *you*, being used in their stead), it seems to be a useless waste of time, in parsing, to mention the person of a noun, unless it be in the *first* or *second* person, which will not happen more than once in a thousand times. Much time therefore will be saved, and no loss sustained, if it be considered as *taken for granted*, without stating it, that a noun is in the *third* person, unless it be otherwise mentioned.

GENDER.

121. GENDER is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex. APPENDIX I.

122. There are three genders, *Masculine*, *Feminine*, and *Neuter*.

123. Nouns denoting males are *Masculine*; as, *man*, *boy*.

124. Nouns denoting females are *Feminine*; as *woman*, *girl*.

125. Nouns denoting neither males nor females, i. e., things without sex, are *Neuter*; as, *house*, *book*, *tree*.

126. Nouns which denote either males or females, such as *parent*, *neighbor*, *friend*, &c., are sometimes, for the sake of convenience, said to be of the *Common Gender*, i. e., either masculine or feminine.

127. There are three ways of distinguishing the sexes.

1. By different words; as,

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	maid	Horse	mare
Beau	belle	Husband	wife
Boy	girl	King	queen
Brother	sister	Lord	lady
Buck	doe	Man	woman
Bull	cow	Master	mistress
Drake	duck	Nephew	niece
Earl	countess	Ram, buck	ewe
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Friar	nun	Stag	hind
Gander	goose	Uncle	aunt
Hart	roe	Wizard	witch

2. By a difference of termination; as,

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Arbiter	arbitress
Actor	actress	Author	authoress
Administrator	administratrix	Baron	baroness
Adulterer	adulteress	Bridegroom	bride
Ambassador	ambassadress	Benefactor	benefactress

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Count	countess	Peer	peeress
Deacon	deaconess	Poet	poetess
Duke	duchess	Priest	priestess
Elector	electress	Prince	princess
Emperor	empress	Prior	prioress
Enchanter	enchantress	Prophet	prophetess
Executor	executrix	Protector	protectress
Governor	governess	Shepherd	shepherdess
Heir	heiress	Songster	songstress
Hero	heroine	Sorcerer	sorceress
Hunter	huntress	Sultān	{ sultana, or sultaneess
Host	hostess		
Jew	jewess	Tiger	tigress
Landgrave	landgravine	Traitor	traitress
Lion	lioness	Tutor	tutorress
Marquis	marchioness	Viscount	viscountess
Mayor	mayoress	Votary	votaress
Patron	patroness	Widower	widow

3. By prefixing a distinguishing word ; as,

	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Sparrow.	A <i>cock</i> sparrow.	A <i>hen</i> sparrow.
Goat.	A <i>he</i> goat.	A <i>she</i> goat.
Servant.	A <i>man</i> servant.	A <i>maid</i> servant.
Child.	A <i>male</i> child.	A <i>female</i> child.
Descendants.	<i>Male</i> descendants.	<i>Female</i> descendants.

OBSERVATIONS ON GENDER.

128. Many masculine nouns have no corresponding feminine ; as, *baker*, *brewer*, &c. : and some feminine nouns have no corresponding masculine ; as, *laundress*, *seamstress*, &c.

129. Some nouns naturally neuter, are often, by a figure of speech (1046, 1), converted into the masculine or feminine ; as, when we say of the sun, “*He* is setting ;” of the moon, “*She* is eclipsed ;” or of a ship, “*She* sails.”

130. REMARK.—This inferior species of personification, peculiar to the English language, is often used with great beauty to impart animation and liveliness to the style, without rendering it inflated or passionate. No certain rule, however, can be given as to the gender assumed, except that nouns denoting objects distinguished for strength or boldness, are usually regarded as masculine, while, on the other hand, those denoting objects noted for softness, beauty, and gracefulness, are considered feminine.

131. In speaking of animals whose sex is not known to us, or not regarded, we assign the masculine gender to those distinguished for boldness, fidelity, generosity, size, strength &c., as the dog, the horse, the elephant. Thus we say, "The dog is remarkably various in *his* species." On the other hand, we assign the feminine gender to animals characterized by weakness and timidity; as the hare, the cat, &c.; thus, "The cat, as *she* beholds the light, draws the ball of *her* eye small and long."

132 In speaking of animals, particularly those of inferior size, we frequently consider them without sex, or of the neuter gender. Thus, of an infant, we say, "*It* is a lovely creature;" of a cat, "*It* is cruel to *its* enemy."

133. When the male and female are expressed by distinct terms, as, *shepherd*, *shepherdess*, the masculine term has sometimes also a general meaning, expressing both male and female, and is always to be used when the office, occupation, profession, &c., and not the sex of the individual, is chiefly to be expressed. The feminine term is used only when the discrimination of sex is necessary. Thus, when it is said, "the Poets of this country are distinguished for correctness of taste," the term "Poets" clearly includes both *male* and *female* writers of poetry. But, "the best Poetess of the age," would be said when speaking only of females.

134. Collective nouns, when the reference is to the aggregate as one whole, or when they are in the plural number, are considered as neuter; as, "The *army* destroyed every thing in *its* course;" but when the reference is to the objects composing the collection as individuals, they take the gender of the individuals referred to.

EXERCISES.

1. *What is the feminine of*—Father, prince, king, master, actor, emperor, bridegroom, stag, buck, hart, nephew, friar, priest, heir, hero, Jew, host, hunter, sultan, executor, horse, lord, husband, brother, son, bull, he-goat, &c.?

2. *What is the masculine of*—Lady, woman, girl, niece, nun, aunt, belle, duchess, abbess, empress, heroine, wife, sister, mother, hind, roe, mare, hen-sparrow, shepherdess, daughter, ewe, goose, queen, songstress, widow, &c.?

3. *Tell of what gender the following nouns are, and why.*

Man, horse, tree, field, father, house, mother, queen, count, lady, king, prince, castle, tower, river, stone, hen, goose, seamstress, mountain, cloud, air, sky, hand, foot, head, body, limb, lion, tiger, mayor, countess;—friend, neighbor, parent, teacher, assistant, guide;—sun (129), moon, earth, ship;—cat, (132), mouse, fly, bird, elephant, hare.

4. Take any of the above words, and say something respecting the person or thing which it denotes, so as to make a sentence; thus, "My *father* is at home."

NUMBER.

135. NUMBER is that property of a noun by which it expresses one, or more than one.

136. Nouns have two numbers, the *Singular* and the *Plural*. The singular denotes *one*: as, *book, tree*; the plural, *more than one*; as, *books, trees*.

GENERAL RULE.

137. The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular; as, *book, books*.

SPECIAL RULES.

138. RULE 1.—Nouns in *s, sh, ch* soft, *z, x, or o*, form the plural by adding *es*; as, *Miss, Misses; brush, brushes; match, matches; topaz, topazes; fox, foxes; hero, heroes*.

139. Exceptions.—Nouns in *eo, io, and yo*, have *s* only; as, *cameo, cameos; folio,folios; embryo, embryos*. So also, *canto, cantos. Junto, tyro, grotto, portico, solo, halo, quarto*, formerly had *s* only in the plural; but now more commonly *es* under the Rule; as, *junto, juntoes, &c.* Nouns in *ch* sounding *k*, add *s* only; as, *monarch, monarchs*. See also 144.

140. Whenever *s* or *es* will not coalesce with the final syllable, it adds a syllable to the word; as, *age, pl. ages; box, boxes*. But where *s* or *es* will coalesce, it does not add a syllable; as, *book, books; cargo, cargoes*. The *s* will make an additional syllable only after *e* final, preceded by *g* or an *s*-sound; as, *cage, cages; race, races; rose, roses*. *Es* will coalesce, and so not add a syllable, only after *o*; as, *echo, echoes*.

141. RULE 2.—Nouns in *y* after a consonant, change *y* into *ies* in the plural; as, *lady, ladies*. But

Nouns in *y* after a vowel, and all proper nouns in *y*, follow the general rule (137); as, *day, days; the Pompeys, the Tullys, &c.*

142. RULE 3.—Nouns in *f* or *fe*, change *f* or *fe* into *ves* in the plural: as, *loaf, loaves; life, lives*.

143. *Exceptions.*—Dwarf, scarf, reef; brief, chief, grief; kerchief, handkerchief, mischief; gulf, turf, surf; safe, fife, strife; proof, hoof, reproof, follow the general rule. Also nouns in *f* have their plural in *s*; as, *muff, muffs*; except *staff*, plural *staves*; but its compounds are regular; as, *flag-staff, flagstaffs*; *wharf* has either *wharfs* or *wharves*.

EXERCISES.

1. Give the plural of the following nouns, and the rule for forming it; thus, *Fox*, plural, *foxes*. *Rule*—Nouns in *s, sh, ch* soft, *z, x, or o*, form the plural by adding *es*. Or, more briefly; Nouns in *x* form the plural by adding *es*.

Fox, book, leaf, candle, bat, loaf, wish, fish, sex, box, coach, inch, sky, bounty, army, duty, knife, echo, loss, cargo, wife, story, church, table, glass, study, calf, branch, street, potato, peach, sheaf, booby, rock, stone, house, glory, hope, flower, city, difficulty, distress, wolf.

Day, bay, relay, chimney, journey, valley, needle, enemy, army, vale, ant, valley, hill, sea, key, toy, monarch, tyro, grotto, nuncio, puncilio, embryo, gulf, handkerchief, hoof, staff, muff, cliff, whiff, cuff, ruff, reef, safe, wharf, fief.

2. *Of what number is*—Book, trees, plant, shrub, globes, planets, toys, home, fancy, mosses, glass, state, foxes, houses, prints, spoon, bears, lilies, roses, churches, glove, silk, skies, hill, river, scenes, stars, berries, peach, porch, glass, pitcher, valleys, mountain, cameos?

3. Take six of the above words, and say something respecting each; first in the *singular*, and then in the *plural*.

NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

144. Some nouns are irregular in the formation of their plural; such as—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Goose	geese
Child	children	Mouse	mice
Foot	feet	Louse	lice
Ox	oxen	Cow formerly	kine but now regular, cows

145. Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular form of the plural, but with different significations; as—

Singular.

Brother	(one of the same family)	<i>Plural.</i>
Brother	(one of the same society)	brothers
Die	(a stamp for coining)	brethren
Die	(a small cube for gaming)	dies
Genius	(a man of genius)	dice
Genius	(a kind of spirit)	geniuses
Index	(a table of reference)	genii
Index	(a sign in algebra)	indexes
Pea	(as a distinct seed)	indices
Pea	(as a species of grain)	peas
Sow	(an individual animal)	pease
Sow or swine	(the species)	sows
Penny	(a coin ——)	swine
Penny	(a sum or value)	pennies
		pence

146. Note.—Though *pence* is plural, yet such expressions as *fourpence*, *sixpence*, &c., as the name of a sum, or of a coin representing that sum, is often regarded as singular, and so capable of a plural; as, “Three four-pences, or two sixpences, make a shilling.” “A new sixpence is heavier than an old one.”

147.—Compounds ending in *ful* or *full*, and generally those which have the important word last, form the plural regularly; as, *spoonful*, *cupful*, *coachful*, *handful*, *mouse-trap*, *ox-cart*, *court-yard*, *camera-obscura*, &c.; plural, *spoonfuls*, *cupfuls*, *coachfuls*, &c.

148. Compounds in which the principal word stands first, pluralize the first word; as—

Singular.

Commander-in-chief	<i>Plural.</i>
Aid-de-camp	commanders-in-chief
Knight-errant	aids-de-camp
Court-martial	knight-s-errant
Cousin-german	courts-martial
Father-in-law, &c.	cousins-german
	fathers-in-law, &c.

Man-servant changes both; as, *men-servants*. So also, *women-servants*, *knight-s templars*.

149. The compounds of *man* form the plural as the simple word; as, *fisherman*, *fishermen*. But nouns accidentally ending in *man*, and not compounds of *man*, form the plural by the general rule; as, *Turcoman*, *Mussulman*, *talisman*; plural, *Turcomans*, *Mussulmans*, &c.

150. Proper names, when pluralized, and other parts of speech used

as nouns, or mere names, form the plural like nouns of similar endings; as, the *Aristoiles*, the *Solons*, the *Mariuses*, the *Pompeys*, the *Ciceros*; the *ayes* and *noes*, the *ins* and the *outs*; by *sixes* and *sevens*, by *fifties*; three *fourths*, two *halves*; “His *ands* and his *ors*”; “One of the *buts* is superfluous.”

151. EXCEPTION.—Such words ending in *y* after a consonant, follow the general rule (137), and not the special rule (141); as, the *Livys*, the *Tullys*, the *Henrys*—“The *whys* and the *bys*.”

152. Letters, marks, and numerical figures, are made plural by adding *'s*; as, “Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*.”—“Your *s's* are not well made.”—“The *+*'s and *—*'s are not in line.”—“Four *6's* = eight *3's*.”—“*9's* give place to *0's*.”

153. NOTE.—Some good writers form the plural of proper names, &c. in this way; as, the *Marius's*, the *Pompey's*,—the *why's* and the *wherefore's*. But this is unnecessary, and should be avoided.

154. Words adopted without change from foreign languages, generally retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in *um* or *on*, have *a* in the plural. Latin nouns in *is*, in the plural change *is* into *es*; Greek nouns in *is*, change *is* into *ides*; Latin nouns in *a* change *a* into *æ*; but Greek nouns change *a* into *ata* in the plural. The following are the most common, some of which, however, from common use, have become so much a part of the English language as to have also the *English* form of the plural. In the following table, these are indicated by the letter *R.*

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Alumnus	alumni	Chrysalis	chrysalides
Alumna	alumnae	Crisis	crises
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Criterion	criteria
Analysis	analyses	Datum	data
Animalculum	animalcula, R.	Desideratum	desiderata
Antithesis	antitheses	Diaeresis	diaereses
Apex	apices, R.	Effluvium	effluvia
Appendix	appendices, R.	Ellipsis	ellipses
Arcanum	arcana	Emphasis	emphases
Automaton	automata, R.	Encomium	encomia, R.
Axis	axes	Ephemeris	ephemerides
Bandit	banditti	Erratum	errata
Basis	bases	Focus	foci
Beau	beaux, R.	Formula	formulae
Calx	calces, R.	Fungus	fungi, funguses
Cherub	cherubim, R.	Genius	genii (145)

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Genus	genera	Nebula	nebulæ
Gymnasium	gymnasia, R.	Oasis	oases
Hypothesis	hypotheses	Parenthesis	parentheses
Ignis fatuus	ignes fatui	Phenomenon	phenomena
Index (<i>a pointer</i>)	indexes	Radius	radii
Index (<i>in algebra</i>)	indices	Scholium	scholia, R.
Lamina	laminæ	Seraph	seraphim, R.
Larva	larvæ	Speculum	specula
Magus	magi	Stamen	stamina, R.
Medium	media, R.	Stimulus	stimuli -
Memorandum	memoranda, R.	Stratum	strata
Metamorphosis	metamorphoses	Thesis	theses
Miasma	miasmata	Vertebra	vertebræ
Momentum	momenta, R.	Vertex	vertices, R.
Monsieur	messieurs	Virtuoso	virtuosi
Mr. (<i>master</i>)	messrs. (<i>masters</i>)	Vortex	vortices, R.

EXERCISES ON NOUNS IRREGULAR IN NUMBER.

Give the plural of—Man, foot, penny, mouse, ox, child, woman, brother, goose, tooth;—sow, die, court-martial, father-in-law, son-in-law;—cupful, coachful, spoonful; erratum, medium, radius, genius, lamina, automaton, phenomenon, stratum, axis, ellipsis, stamen, index, cherub, seraph, &c.

Of what number is—Dice, arcana, fishermen, geese, dormice, alms, riches, thanks, snuffers, tongs, teeth, woman, child, court-martial, apparatus, miasma, genii, geniuses, indices, indexes, mathematics, Matthew, James, John?

OBSERVATIONS ON NUMBER.

155. Some nouns are used *in the singular only*. Such are the names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, abstract qualities, and things weighed or measured; as, gold, meekness, piety, idleness, intemperance, sculpture, geometry, wisdom, flour, milk, &c. Except when different sorts of things are expressed; as, wines, teas, sugars, liquors, &c.

156. Some nouns are used *in the plural only*; as, annals, antipodes, archives, assets, ashes, billiards, bitters, breeches, clothes, calends, colors (military banners), dregs, goods, hysterics, ides, intestines, literati, lees, letters, (literature), minutiae, manners, morals, nones, orgies, pleiads or pleiades,

shambled, tidings, thanks, vespers, vitals, victuals; Also, things consisting of two parts; as, *bellows, drawers, hose, nippers, pincers, pliers, snuffers, scissors, shears, tongs*, &c.

A few words usually plural, viz., *bowels, embers, entrails, lungs*, have sometimes a singular, denoting a part or portion of that expressed by the plural; as, *bowel, lung*, &c.

157. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *deer, sheep, swine, vermin, grouse, salmon, tench, trout, apparatus, hiatus, series, congeries, species, superficies, head* (in the sense of individual), *cattle*; certain building materials; as, *brick, stone, plank, joist*, in mass; also *fish*, and sometimes *fowl*, denoting the class. But several of these, in a plural sense, denoting individuals have the regular plural also; as, *salmons, trouts, fishes, fowls*, &c.

158. The words *brace, couple, pair, yoke, dozen, score, gross, hundred, thousand*, and some others, after adjectives of number, are either singular or plural; as, *a brace, a dozen, a hundred*; two *brace*, three *dozen*, six *hundred*, &c. But without an adjective of number, or in other constructions, and particularly after *in, by, &c.*, in a distributive sense, most of these words, in the plural, assume a plural form; as, "In *braces* and *dozens*."—"By *scores* and *hundreds*."—"Worth *thousands*."

159. 1. The following words, plural in form, are sometimes singular, but most commonly plural in signification, viz.: *amends, means, riches, pains* (meaning laborious effort), *odds, alms, wages*; and the names of certain sciences; as, *mathematics, ethics, optics, acoustics, metaphysics, politics, pneumatics, hydrostatics*, &c.

2. *Means* and *amends*, referring to one object, are singular; to more than one, plural. *Mean*, in the singular form, is now used to signify the middle between two extremes. *Alms* (*ælmesse*, Anglo-Saxon) and *riches* (*richesse*, French), are really singular, though now used commonly in a plural sense. *News*, formerly singular or plural, is now mostly singular. *Molasses* and *measles*, though ending like a plural, are singular, and so used. *Oats* is generally plural; *gallows* is both singular and plural, though a distinct plural form, *gallowses*, is also in use.

160. The following are singular in form, but in construction various; thus, *foot* and *horse*, meaning bodies of troops, and *people*, meaning persons, are always construed as plural; *cannon, shot, sail, cavalry, infantry*, as singular or plural. *People* (also *folke*), when it signifies a community or body of persons, is a collective noun in the singular, and sometimes, though rarely, takes a plural form; as, "Many *peoples* and *nations*."
Rev. x. 11.

THE PLURAL OF PROPER NAMES.

161. Proper names for the most part want the plural; but—

1. Proper names without a title are used in the plural, when they refer to a race or family; as, “The *Campbells*.” “the *Stuarts*;” or to several persons of the same name; as, “The twelve *Cæsars*;” or when they are used to denote character; as, “The *Ciceros* of the age.”

2. Proper names with the title of *Mrs.*, prefixed, or with any title, preceded by the numerals, *two*, *three*, &c., pluralize the *name*, and not the title; as, “The *Mrs. Howards*;” “the two *Miss Mortons*;” “the two *Mr. Henrys*.[”]

3. But when several persons of the same name are spoken of individually, and distinguished by a particular appellation, or when persons of different names are spoken of together, the *title* only, and not the name is made plural; as, “*Misses Julia and Mary Robinson*;” “*Messrs. George and Andrew Thomson*;” “*Messrs. Pratt, Woodford, & Co.*”

Thus far, usage and the rule are settled and uniform; but—

4. In other cases, usage is still unsettled. Some writers, perhaps the majority, pluralize the *title* and not the name; as, “The *Misses Brown*;” “the *Messrs. Harper*.[”] Others, of equal authority, regarding the title as a sort of adjective, or the whole as a compound name, pluralize the *name* and not the title; as, the *Miss Browns*;” “the *Mr. Harpers*.[”] This form is more common in conversation, and, being less stiff and formal, is more likely to prevail. A few improperly pluralize both name and title; as, “The *Misses Browns*;” “the *Messrs. Harpers*.[”]

5. Names with other titles prefixed, follow the same analogy; as, “Lords Wellington and Lynedoch;” “the lords bishops of Durham and St. David’s;” “the generals Scott and Taylor.”

CASES OF NOUNS.

162. CASE is the state or condition of a noun with respect to the other words in a sentence. See 164–166.

163. Nouns in English have three cases, the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, and *Objective*.

164. The *Nominative* case is used—

1. When a noun is used simply as the name of an object.
2. When it is used as that of which something is affirmed; as, “*John reads.*”
3. When it is used as a predicate (600); as, “*John is a good boy.*”
4. When it is used absolutely or independent of any other word; as, “*O Absalom, my son!*”

165. The *Possessive* case connects with the name of an object, the idea of *origin, possession, or fitness*; as, *The sun's rays*; *John's book*; *a boy's cap*; *men's shoes*.

166. The *Objective* case is used—

1. To denote the object of a transitive verb (317) in the active voice (368); as, “*James assists Thomas.*”
2. To denote the object of a relation expressed by a preposition (538); as, “*They live in London.*”
3. To denote time, value, weight, or measure, without a governing word (828); as, “*James is ten years old.*”

GENERAL RULES.

167. The nominative and the objective of nouns are alike.

168. The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe and *s* to the nominative; as, *John's*.

169. When the plural ends in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only; as, *ladies'*. But when the plural does not end in *s*, both the apostrophe and *s* are added; as, *men's*, *children's*.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

170. Nouns are thus declined—

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
Nom.	Lady	ladies	Man	men	John
Poss.	Lady's	ladies'	Man's	men's	John's
Obj.	Lady	ladies	Man	men	John

171. Proper names for the most part want the plural (161).

OBSERVATIONS ON THE POSSESSIVE.

172. The 's in the possessive case is evidently an abbreviation for the old English termination of the genitive in *es* or *is*. Thus, “*The king's crown*” was written, “*The kingis crown.*” That s is not an abbreviation

for *his*, as some have supposed, is manifest from the fact, that it is used where *his* could not be properly employed; thus, *woman's*, *men's*, *children's*, *book's*, &c., can not be resolved into *woman [his]*, *men his*, *children his*, &c.

The apostrophe (') after *s* in the plural, is not a mark of abbreviation, but is used, in modern times, merely as a sign of the possessive. Its use in the plural is but of recent date.

173. When the nominative singular ends in *ss*, or in letters of a similar sound, though to retain the *s* after the apostrophe is never wrong, yet, as a matter of taste, it is sometimes omitted in order to avoid harshness, or too close a succession of hissing sounds; as, "For goodness' sake;" "for conscience' sake;" so also "Moses' disciples;" "Jesus' feet."

174. NOTE.—There is considerable diversity of opinion and usage on this point. Some few insist on retaining *s* after the apostrophe in every position; as, "Xanthus's stock of patience."—*L'Estrange*. Others drop the *s* only before a word beginning with an *s* or an *s*-sound, as above; while others drop the *s* wherever the use of it would produce harshness, or difficulty of pronunciation. Though in this last, the usage which omits the *s* is less prevalent and less accurate than that which retains it, yet, from the sanction it has obtained—from the stiffness and harshness which retaining the *s* often occasions—and from the tendency in all spoken language to abbreviation and euphony, it seems destined to prevail against all arguments to the contrary.

175. REMARK.—In written language, the omission of the *s* occasions but little inconvenience; for the apostrophe sufficiently indicates the case, and the construction will generally indicate the number. In spoken language, however, the use of the *s* is more necessary, to avoid obscurity, especially in proper names. Thus, in spoken language, "Davy's Surveying," and "Davies' Surveying," sound precisely alike, though the names are different. Hence, to indicate the last name correctly in speaking, it will be more accurate, though less euphonic, to say, "Davies's Surveying." Thus, also, "Perkins' Arithmetic," "Sparks' Analysis," in spoken language, may be mistaken for "Perkin's Arithmetic," "Spark's Analysis." In such cases, precision will be secured at the expense of euphony, by retaining the *s*, while euphony will be attained, frequently at the expense of precision, by dropping it.

176. The meaning of the possessive may, in general, be expressed by the word *of* with the objective; thus, for "man's wisdom," "virtue's reward," we may say, "the wisdom of man," "the reward of virtue." This mode will generally be preferred, when the use of the possessive would appear stiff or awkward; thus, "the length of the day," is better than "the day's length." In some few words which want the possessive plural, such as *father-in-law*, *court-martial*, &c., this is the only substitute. These two modes of expression, however, are not always equivalent; thus, "the king's picture," means any picture belonging to the king; "a picture of the king," means a portrait of him, without saying to whom it belongs. So also, *of* with the objective, can not always be represented by the possessive; as, "A piece of gold," "a cord of wood," "the house of representatives," &c.

PARSING (93) THE NOUN.

177. A noun is parsed etymologically, by stating its accidents, or grammatical properties (110), as exemplified (182).

178. Note.—The possessive is easily known by its form. As the nominative and objective of nouns are alike, in parsing nouns in the following lists, all nouns not in the possessive, may be said to be in the nominative. The method of distinguishing the nominative and objective will be explained in its proper place. As *person* belongs, not to the *form*, but to the *relations* of the noun, the mention of it may be omitted for the present.

179. N. B.—In all parsing, much time will be saved, if the pupil be accustomed to say every thing necessary to be said, at once, without waiting to have each particular drawn from him by a question—to say it in the shortest possible manner—and also to say the same things always in the *same order*. Every teacher will of course select that order which he prefers. The order here directed may perhaps be acceptable to most teachers (182).

180. As it makes no difference in the construction of a sentence, whether a noun be proper or common, there seems to be little or no advantage in mentioning this distinction in parsing. Some accordingly omit this, as well as *person* in parsing, for the sake of brevity—an object worthy of consideration in a large school, where economy of *time* is important. Or, when a proper noun occurs, which is comparatively seldom, it may be mentioned, taking it always *for granted* that a noun is common when not otherwise mentioned. This appears to be sufficient for every purpose.

PRELIMINARY ORAL EXERCISE.

181. In proceeding to parse the noun, the teacher, if he thinks proper, may begin by some such inductive process as the following: The class having gone through the preceding definitions and rules, the teacher may call on some one to mention the *name* of any thing he sees, or happens to think of; and suppose he mentions the words *house*, *tree*, *book*, *desk*, *pen*, &c., let these words be written on the blackboard. He may then call on another, and another, in the same way, still writing the *names* as mentioned. In this way the pupils will furnish a list of exercises for themselves. The teacher may then take the first of these, "house," and write it by itself on the board, at the left hand, and proceed with some such questions as the following, the answers to which, from what has been previously learned, will be obvious, and readily given:—

Is *House* the *name* of any thing?

What part of speech is the name of a thing?

Then, what part of speech is *House*? Ans. "*A noun.*"

(After the word *house* on the board now write the word "*noun.*")

What is a noun?—How many kinds of nouns are there?

What is a proper noun?—what a common noun?

Is the word *house* proper or common? Ans. *Common*. Why?

(Then after the word "*noun*" write the word *common*, as before.)

What are the properties or accidents of the noun?

What is gender?—How many genders are there?

What nouns are masculine?—what feminine?—what neuter?
 To which of these does the word *house* belong? Ans. *Neuter*. Why?
 (Then write the word *neuter* after *common*, as above.)

What is the next property of the noun?

What is number?—How many numbers are there?

What does the singular denote?—the plural?

Does *House* denote one or more than one?

Of what number then is *House*? Ans. *Singular*.

(Now add as above the word *singular*.)

What is the next property of a noun?

How many cases are there? Name them.

Decline *House* in the singular: in the plural.

Which of these cases is used when a noun is mentioned simply as the name of an object (164, 1.)?

House being used in this manner here, in what case is it? Ans. In the *Nominative*.

(Then write *nominative* at the end, as above.)

There will now have been written on the blackboard the following:—

House, Noun, Common, Neuter, Singular, Nominative.

The teacher may then ask, as a sort of review, why do you call *house* a noun?—why, *common*?—why, *neuter*?—why, *singular*?—why, the *nominative*?—requiring a distinct answer to each question. And lastly, he may require the pupil to state these reasons in order, without the questions being asked; thus:—

House—a *Noun*, because the name of a thing;

Common, because it belongs to all things of the sort;

Neuter, because without sex;

Singular, because it denotes one, plural, *houses*;

Nominative, because it is used *only* as a name (164–1.)

By repeating this process a few times, occasionally, all that belongs to the parsing of a noun will become so familiar, and so clearly understood, as to be always easy.

182. In parsing, these accidents may be stated, either in the order above, or in such as the teacher prefers. Some say, “A *common neuter noun, in the nominative singular*.” Others prefer, as giving more prominence to the accidents, and sufficiently euphonious, to say, “A *noun, common, neuter, in the nominative singular*;—or omitting the *kind* of noun, except when a proper noun occurs, for reasons stated (180), to say more briefly, “A *noun, neuter, in the nominative singular*.” This last method is the one here recommended, as being brief and sufficiently descriptive.

EXERCISES.

1. State the gender, case, and number of the following nouns, and always in the same order; thus, “Father, a *noun, masculine, in the nominative singular*.”

Father, brothers, mother's, boys, book, loaf, arms, wife, hats,

sisters', bride's, bottles, brush, goose, eagles' wings, echo, ox's horn, mouse, kings, queens, bread, child's toy, grass, tooth, tongs, candle, chair, Jane's boots, Robert's shoe, horse, bridle.

2. Go over the same list, giving a reason for everything stated; thus, "Father, a *noun*, because the name of an object; *masculine*, because it denotes a male; *nominative*, because mentioned simply as the name of an object (164-1); *singular*, because it denotes *one*."

THE ARTICLE.

183. AN ARTICLE is a word put before a noun, to indicate the manner in which it is used (707 &c.)

184. There are two articles, *a* or *an* and *the*.

185. *A* or *an* is called the *indefinite article*, because it shows that its noun denotes a person or thing *indefinitely*, or without distinction; as, *A* man, i. e. *any* man, or *some* man, without stating which one.

186. *A* is used before a consonant; as, *a book*; also before a vowel, or diphthong, which combines with its sound the power of initial *y*, or *w*; as, *a unit*, *a use*, *a eulogy*, *a ewe*, many *a one*.

187. *An* is used before a vowel or silent *h*; as, *an age*, *an hour*; also before words beginning with *h* sounded, when the accent is on the second syllable; as, *an heroic action*, *an historical account*;—because *h* in such words is but slightly sounded.

188. Note.—The primary form of this article is *An* (*ane*). The *n* has been dropped before a consonant, from regard to euphony.

139. *A* or *an* is sometimes used in the sense of *one*, *each*, *every*; as, "Six cents *a* pound;" "two shillings *a* yard;" "one dollar *a* day;" "four hundred *a* year."

190. REMARK.—In the expressions *a hunting*, *a fishing*, *a going*, *a running*, *a building*, and the like; also, in the expressions, now nearly obsolete, "*a Wednesdays*," "*a nights*," "*a pieces*," &c., *a* is equivalent to *at*, *to*, *in*, *on*, and is to be regarded, not as an article, but as a preposition (548). In the same sense, it is used as a prefix in such words as *afloat*, *ashore*, *asleep*, *abed*, &c.

191. *The* is called the *definite article*, because it shows that its noun is used *definitely*, and refers to some particular person or thing; as, *the man*, i. e., some particular man ascertained or pointed out. See Syntax (707-2).

192. Note.—The article is sometimes said to limit the signification of a noun, and is therefore called a "definitive." This is scarcely correct. A noun with *a* or *an* prefixed, is always used in an individual sense, to denote *one of a class*. But this being for the most part sufficiently indi-

cated by the singular number, the use of the article to mark the individual is necessary only in the few cases in which the noun, in the singular number, is used in a generic, as well as individual sense. Thus, the terms *man*, *woman*, *oak*, &c., without an article, mean the *species*; but with *a* or *an* prefixed, they mean the *individual*; as, *a man*, *a woman*, *an oak*. So far only can *a* or *an* properly be said to limit, or perform the part of a definitive. In other respects, it rather shows the want of limitation.

193. In like manner, the article *the* commonly indicates that its noun is limited, and refers to some particular person or thing, but still the *article* is not the limiting word. A noun may be limited in a variety of ways; by notoriety or eminence, by previous mention, by an adjective, a possessive, a relative clause, a preposition and its case, &c.; but never by the article, except perhaps in the case of previous mention, and even that is doubtful. Thus, when we say, "The *red book*," "the *boy's book*," "the book *which we lost*," "the book *on the table*," we perceive that the word *book*, following *the*, is limited—not, however, by the article, but by the words *red*, *boy's*, &c. This fact constitutes a specific difference between the article and the adjective: *the adjective always describes or limits its noun* (195); *the article does not*, but is only a sort of index, to give previous notice that the noun is used in a particular way.

194. PARSING.—The article is parsed by stating whether it is *definite* or *indefinite*, and to what noun it belongs; thus, "A book." *A* is the indefinite article, and belongs to *book*.

EXERCISES.

Is it proper to say—a man,	or an man?	why?
a apple,	or an apple?	why?
a house,	or an house?	why?
a hour,	or an hour?	why?
a unicorn,	or an unicorn?	why?
a ewe,	or an ewe?	why?

1. Prefix the indefinite article *a* or *an* correctly to the following words.
2. Tell which words are nouns, and why—parse them (177)—decline them.

Chair, table, horse, cart, book, house, garden, bird, owl, egg, ear, eye, tree, cow, unit, use, old man, young man, word, hook, pot, bench, desk, room, oven, oak, eulogy, ewe, uncle, aunt;—open wagon, useful contrivance, round stone, old hat.

3. In the following, correct such as are wrong, and give a reason for the change;—parse the articles and nouns.

An cup, a door, a apple, a pear, a ounce, a pound, an hat, an wig, an eulogy, an youth, a honor, a heir, a crow, a ostrich, a pen—a ugly beast, a useful tree, an humming-bird, an neat cottage, a upper room, an huge monster.

THE ADJECTIVE.

195. AN ADJECTIVE is a word used to qualify a substantive (109); as, "A *good* boy;" "a *square* box;" "*ten* dollars;" "we found him *poor*."

196. A noun is *qualified* by an adjective, when the object named is thereby *described*, *limited*, or *distinguished* from other things of the same name. This is done two ways:—

1. Certain adjectives connect with their nouns some *quality* by which the objects named are described or distinguished from others of the same kind; as, "A *red* flag;" "an *amusing* story." Such are *common* and *participial* adjectives (202).

2. Others merely limit, without expressing any quality; as, "An *American* book;" "*ten* dollars;" "*last* week;" "*this* year;" "*every* day," &c. Such are *circumstantial*, *numeral*, and *definitive* adjectives (202).

197. Adjectives, as predicates, may qualify an infinitive mood, or clause of a sentence used as a substantive; as, "*To play* is *pleasant*."—"That the rich are happy is not always true."

198. Several adjectives sometimes qualify the same noun; as, "A *smooth*, *round* stone."

199. An adjective is sometimes used to qualify the meaning of another adjective, the two forming a sort of compound adjective; as, "A *bright-red* color;" "a *dark-blue* coat;" "a *cast-iron* ball."

200. When other parts of speech are used to qualify or limit a noun or pronoun, they perform the part of an adjective, and should be parsed as such; thus,

Noun; as, A *gold* ring; *silver* cup, *sea* water, a *stone* bridge.

Pronouns; as, A *he* bear; a *she* wolf.

Adverbs; as, Is the child *well*? for *very* age; the *then* king.

Prepositions; as, The *above* remark; the *under* side.

201. On the contrary, adjectives without a substantive are sometimes used as nouns; as, "God rewards the *good*, and punishes the *bad*."—"The *virtuous* are the most *happy*." Adjectives used in this way are usually preceded by *the*, and when applied to persons, are for the most part considered plural.

DIVISION OF ADJECTIVES.

202. Adjectives are sometimes divided into the following classes, viz.:—

1. *Common*, which express quality; as, *good*, *bad*, *sweet*, &c.

2. *Circumstantial*, which express circumstances of time, place, nation, &c.; as, *daily*, *eastern*, *English*, *American*, &c.

3. *Numeral*, which express number; as, *one*, *two*, *three*; *first*, *second*, &c.

4. *Participial*, consisting of participles, or compounds of participles used as adjectives; as, "An *amusing* story;" "an *unmerited* rebuke;" "to pass *unmolested*." Some add—

5. *Definitive*, which do not express any property of an object, but merely point it out, or limit in various ways the meaning of the noun. To this class belong such words as *this*, *that*, *each*, *every*, *some*, *both*, &c. These sometimes accompany the noun, and sometimes refer to it understood, or stand instead of it, after the manner of pronouns, and hence are sometimes called *Pronominal adjectives*, and sometimes *Adjective pronouns*. (See 289.)

203. This classification of adjectives, however, is of but little practical use, as adjectives of all classes are used in the same way.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

204. Adjectives expressing number are called *Numeral adjectives*. They are of two kinds, *Cardinal* and *Ordinal*.

205. The *Cardinal* numbers indicate *how many*; they are *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, &c.

206. The *Ordinal* numbers indicate *which one of a number*; they are *first*, *second*, *third*, &c. In compound numbers, the last only has the ordinal form; as, *twenty-first*; *two hundred and fifty-third*, &c.

207. Numeral adjectives, being also *names* of numbers, are often used as nouns, and so have the inflection and construction of nouns; thus, by *twos*, by *tens*, by *fifties*. For *ten's* sake, for *twenty's* sake. *One* and *one* are *two*. *Two* is an even number. *Five* is the half of ten. Three *fives* are fifteen. *Fifteen* is divisible by three. Twice *two* is *four*.* *Four* is equal to twice *two*. Three *fourths*.

208. Adjectives in English are indeclinable.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

209. Common and participial adjectives for the most part have three forms, called degrees of comparison; namely, *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*.

* In some arithmetics, the language employed in the operation of multiplying—such as “Twice two *are* four, twice three *are* six”—is incorrect. It should be, “Twice two *is* four,” &c.; for the word *two* is used as a singular noun—the name of a number. The adverb “twice” is not in construction with it, and consequently does not make it plural. The meaning is, “The number two taken twice is equal to four.” For the same reason we should say, “Three times *two* *is* six,” because the meaning is, “*Two* taken three times is six.” If we say, “Three times *one* *are* three,” we make “times” the subject of the verb, whereas the subject of the verb really is “*one*,” and “times” is in the objective of number (828). $2 : 4 :: 6 : 12$, should be read “As 2 is to 4, so is 6 to 12;” not, “As two *are* to four, so *are*,” &c. But when numerals denoting more than one, are used as adjectives, with a substantive expressed or understood, they must have a plural construction.

- 210.** The *Positive* expresses a quality, simply ; as, “Gold is *heavy*.”
- 211.** The *Comparative* expresses a quality in a higher degree in one object than in another, or in several taken together ; as, “Gold is *heavier* than silver.” “He is *wiser* than his teachers.”
- 212.** The *Superlative* expresses a quality in one object in the highest degree compared with several others ; as, “Gold is the *most precious* of the metals.”

213. REMARK.—The superlative degree, when made by prefixing the adverb *most*, is often used to express a very high degree of a quality in an object, without directly comparing it with others ; as, “He is a *most distinguished* man.” Thus used, it is called the *superlative* of *eminence*, and commonly has *a* or *an* before it, if the noun is singular ; and is without an article, if the noun is plural. The same thing is expressed by prefixing the adverb *very*, *exceedingly*, &c. ; as, “*a very distinguished man* ;” “*very distinguished men*.” The superlative of comparison commonly has *the* before it.

RULES FOR COMPARISON.

- 214. RULE 1.** Adjectives of one syllable form the comparative by adding *er* to the positive, and the superlative by adding *est* ; as, *sweet*, *sweeter*, *sweetest*.

Words ending in *e* mute, drop *e* before *er* and *est* ; as, *large*, *larger*, *largest* (68.)

- 215. RULE 2.** Adjectives of more than one syllable, are commonly prepared by prefixing *more* and *most* to the positive ; as, *numerous*, *more numerous*, *most numerous*.

216. REMARK.—Though these rules indicate the prevailing usage, yet adjectives of two syllables are not unfrequently compared by *er* and *est* ; as, “Our *tenderest* cares ;” “The *commonest* materials,” and some adjectives of one syllable, as, *wise*, *apt*, *fit*, &c., from regard to euphony or taste, are sometimes compared by *more* and *most*. Dissyllables in *le* and *y* are generally compared by *er* and *est* ; as, *able*, *abler*, *ablest*. All adjectives in *y* after a consonant, change *y* into *i* before *er* and *est* ; as, *dry*, *drier*, *driest*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest* (57); but *y* after a vowel is not changed ; as, *gay*, *gayer*, *gayest*.

- 217.** A lower degree of a quality in one object compared with another, and the lowest compared with several others, is expressed by prefixing

less and *least* to the positive; as, *sweet*, *less sweet*, *least sweet*. This, by way of distinction, is sometimes called the comparison of diminution, or comparison descending.

218. The meaning of the positive is sometimes diminished without employing comparison, by annexing the syllable *ish*; as, *white*, *whitish*; *black*, *blackish*. These may be called diminutive adjectives. So also various shades, degrees, or modifications of quality are frequently expressed by connecting with the adjective such words as *rather*, *somewhat*, *slightly*, *a little*, *too*, *very*, *greatly*, &c., and, in the comparative and superlative, by such words as *much*, *far*, *altogether*, *by far*, &c.

219. Such adjectives as, *superior*, *inferior*, *exterior*, *interior*, &c., though derived from Latin comparatives, and involving the idea of comparison, are not considered the comparative degree in English, any more than such words as *preferable*, *previous*, &c. They have neither the form nor the construction of the comparative (963–2.)

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

220. The following adjectives are compared irregularly, viz.:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad, evil, or ill	worse	worst
Little	less (<i>sometimes lesser</i>)	least
Much or many	more	most
Late	later (<i>irregular, latter</i>)	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther	farthest
Forth (obsolete)	fu ther	furthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest

221. *Much*, is applied to things weighed or measured; *many*, to things that are numbered; *more* and *most*, to both. *Farther* and *farthest* generally denote place or distance; as, “The *farther* they went, the more interesting was the scene; *further* and *furthest* refer to quantity or addition; as, “I have nothing *further* to say.” *Older* and *oldest* are applied to persons or things, and refer to age or duration; as, “Homer is an *older* poet than Virgil;” “The pyramids are *older* than the pantheon.” *Elder* and *eldest* (from the obsolete *eld*) are applied only to persons of the same family, and denote priority of birth; as, “An *elder* brother.” *Later* and *latest* have respect to time; *latter* and *last* to position or order.

222. Some superlatives are formed by annexing *most*, sometimes to the comparative, and sometimes to the word from which the comparative is

formed; as, *upper*, *uppermost*, or *upmost* from *up*; *nether*, *nethermost*; *inner*, *innermost*, or *inmost*, from *in*; *hinder*, *hindermost*, or *hindmost*, from *hind*; *outer*, *outermost*, or *utmost*, from *out*.

ADJECTIVES NOT COMPARED.

223. Adjectives whose signification does not admit of increase or diminution, can not properly be compared. These are—

1. *Numerals*; as, *one*, *two*; *third*, *fourth*, &c.
2. *Proper adjectives*; as, *English*, *American*, *Roman*.
3. Adjectives that denote *figure*, *shape*, or *material*; as, *circular*, *square*, *wooden*, &c
4. Such adjectives as denote *posture* or *position*: as, *perpendicular*, *horizontal*.
5. *Definitives*; as, *each*, *every*, *all*, *some*, &c.
6. Adjectives of an *absolute* or *superlative* signification; as, *true*, *perfect*, *universal*, *chief*, *extreme*, *infinite*, *complete*.

224. REMARK.—Of these last however, comparative and superlative forms are sometimes used, either to give greater force to the expression, or when the words are used in a sense not strictly absolute or superlative. The following are examples:

Extreme.—"The *extremest* of evils."—Bacon. "The *extremest* verge."—Shaks. "His *extremest* state."—Spencer. [So in Greek ἐσχατώτατος.]

Chief.—"Chiefest of the herdsmen."—Bible. "Chiefest courtier."—Shaks. "First and chiefest."—Milton.

Perfect.—"Having *more perfect* knowledge of that way," i.e., knowledge nearer to perfection.—Bible. So. "The *most perfect* society."—E. Everett. "Less perfect imitations."—Macaulay.

More complete, *most complete*, *less complete*, are common.

225. PARSING.—In parsing an adjective fully: 1. State its class. 2. Compare, if admitting comparison (209), and if not compared, so state it. 3. Tell its degree of comparison, if compared. 4. The noun which it qualifies. Do this always in the same order and in the fewest words possible.

EXAMPLES.

"A *wise* son maketh a *glad* father."—"Wisdom is *more precious* than rubies."—"The sluggard is *wiser* in his own conceit, than *seven* men that can render a reason."—"Blessed are the *pure* in heart."

Wise is a common adjective, compared by *er* and *est* (214), positive, and qualifies *son* (196).

Glad is a common adjective, compared by *er* and *est*, positive, and qualifies *father*.

More precious is a common adjective, compared by *more* and *most*, comparative, and qualifies *wisdom* (705, 4).

Wiser is a common adjective, compared by *er* and *est*, comparative, and qualifies *sluggard* (196) and (705, 4).

Seven is a numeral adjective, cardinal, not compared, and qualifies *men*.

Blessed is a participial adjective, compared by *more* and *most*, positive, and qualifies *men*, understood.

Pure is a common adjective, compared by *er* and *est*, positive, and qualifies *men*, understood.

226. ABBREVIATION.—This process may be abbreviated without loss, by omitting the class (202), as of no use in Syntax (584), and also omitting to mention the degree of comparison (209), except the comparative or superlative, taking it for granted, in adjectives compared, that it is in the positive, unless otherwise stated. Any mention of degree, in adjectives not compared, would be improper. In this way the preceding adjectives may be parsed thus,—

Wise is an adjective, compared by *er* and *est*, and qualifies *son*.

More precious is an adjective, compared by *more* and *most*, comparative, and qualifies *wisdom*.

Wiser is an adjective, compared by *er* and *est*, comparative, and qualifies *sluggard*.

227. PRELIMINARY ORAL EXERCISES.

What is an adjective? The pupil having given the definition (195) in answer, for the purpose of illustrating it, a list of nouns may again be formed on the blackboard as directed (181); and supposing the list to be *man, horse, apple, house, tree, book, &c.*, the teacher may take them up, each in order, and proceed in some such way as the following:—

MAN.—What part of speech is *man*? Why? Are all men exactly alike? If not, mention some things in which they differ. Ans. Some are *tall*; some are *short*; some *old*; some *young*; some *learned*; some *unlearned*; some *wise*; some *foolish*, &c.

When you say, “*a tall man, a short man, an old man, a young man*,” what is the use of the words *tall, short, old, &c.*? Ans. They are used to qualify the word “*man*,” by telling what sort of a man is meant (196-1). What part of speech are words used to qualify nouns? Then what part of speech are *tall, short, old, young, &c.*? Prefix an adjective to each of the nouns in the list above, so as to make sense. Prefix as many adjectives to each noun separately, as you can think of, to make sense; thus: **HORSE**—*a large horse, a small horse, a young horse, &c.* What part of speech is *large, small, young, &c.* Why?

COMPARATIVE DEGREE.

Are all men equally *tall*? Ans. No; some men are *taller* than others. When you say, “*James is taller than John*,” in what form or degree is the adjective *taller*? What does the comparative degree express (217)? How is the comparative degree formed? When is the comparative formed

by annexing *er*? When, by prefixing *more*? What is the comparative form of *tall*, *short*, *old*, *young*, &c.? What is the comparative form of *learned*, *unlearned*, *foolish*, *virtuous*, &c.? Put the adjectives prefixed to nouns in the list above, in the comparative form.—Form sentences, each of which shall contain a noun, and its adjective in the comparative degree.

SUPERLATIVE DEGREE.

When you compare James with several other persons and find that he exceeds them all in *tallness*, how would you express it? Ans. I would say, "James is the tallest." What form of the adjective is *tallest*? What does the superlative express? In how many ways is it formed? When, by annexing *est* to the positive? When, by prefixing *most*? What is the superlative of *tall*, *short*, *old*, *young*, *rich*, *poor*, &c.?—of *learned*, *unlearned*, *beautiful*, *virtuous*, &c.? Put the adjectives prefixed to the nouns in the list above, in the superlative form. Form sentences, in each of which there shall be one of the above nouns, and its adjective in the superlative degree.

EXERCISES.

1. COMPARE—Bright, diligent, thin, noble, bad, pretty, fearful, brave, warm, active, worthy, cold, large, industrious, affable, wise, obedient, gloomy, able, sad, little, strong, near, dutiful, serene, big, good, careless, hot, late, fruitful, lovely, gentle, pleasant, sagacious, prudent.

Add to each one of these adjectives a noun which it can properly qualify; as, "A bright day," "a diligent student," &c.

2. *In what form are the following adjectives?*—Mildest, better, high, more, uttermost, happiest worthless, least, whiter, lowermost, worse, cruel, eldest, gentle, magnificent, best, many, less, gayest, peaceful, virtuous, sweetest, evil, inmost, happier, miserable, temperate, useful, delicate, honorable, meek, proud, amiable, morose.

Compare each of these adjectives.

To each of these add a noun which the adjective can properly qualify.

3. In the following phrases, tell which words are nouns, and which are adjectives. Parse as directed (182, 194, 225).

A good man; a kind heart; a clear sky; the benevolent lady; the highest hill; a skillful artist; an older companion; man's chief concern; a lady's lap-dog; most splendid talents; the liveliest disposition; a pleasant temper; the raging billows; temples magnificent; silent shades; excellent corn; a loftier tower; a happier disposition; the third day; a round ball; a square table; one good book is better than many bad books.

4. Take a paragraph in any book; point out the *articles*, *nouns*, and *adjectives*. Parse them; but, in nouns, omit the case.

PRONOUNS.

228. A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun ; as, “*John* is a good boy ; *he* is diligent in *his* studies.”

229. The noun instead of which a pronoun is used, is called its *antecedent*, because the pronoun refers to it as *previously mentioned*, or in some way understood (236).

230. Pronouns of the third person are used in writing and speaking, to prevent the frequent and awkward repetition of the noun. Thus, without the pronoun, the above example would read, “*John* is a good boy ; *John* is diligent in *John’s* studies.”

231. A pronoun is sometimes used instead of another pronoun ; as, “*You* and *I* must attend to our duty.” See 730.

232. Pronouns may be divided into *Personal*, *Relative*, *Interrogative*, and *Adjective*.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

233. *Personal Pronouns* are those which distinguish the *person* by their form. They are either *Simple* or *Compound*.

SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

234. The simple personal pronouns are *I, thou, he, she, it* ; with their plurals, *we, you, they*.

235. Of these, *I* is of the first person, and denotes the *speaker* ; *thou* is of the second, and denotes the *person addressed* ; *he, she, it*, are of the third, and denote the *person or thing spoken of* (111).

236. The pronouns *I* and *thou* denote the speaker, and the person addressed, without previous mention, or even knowledge of their names, the persons intended being sufficiently indicated by their presence, or some other circumstance. The pronouns of the third person refer to some person or thing previously mentioned, or easily understood from the context, or from the nature of the sentence.

237. *He, she, it*, and *they*, are frequently used as general terms in the beginning of a sentence, equivalent to “*the person*,” &c., without reference to a noun going before ; as, “*He* [the person] that loveth pleasure shall be a poor man.” “*How far is it* [the distance] *to the city*?”

238. *They* is also used in a vague sense for "people," in such expressions as "They say," [like the French *on*, or the German *man*].

239. The Accidents of personal pronouns, like nouns (110), are *Person*, *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*. They are thus declined:—

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
1. <i>M.</i> or <i>F.</i>	I	mine	me	We	ours	us
2. <i>M.</i> or <i>F.</i>	Thou (244)	thine	thee	You (245)	yours	you
3.	{ <i>Masc.</i> He	his	him	They	theirs	them
	{ <i>Fem.</i> She	hers	her	They	theirs	them
	{ <i>Neut.</i> It	its	it	They	theirs	them

OBSERVATIONS ON PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

240. In many Grammars, the possessive of all the pronouns, except *he* and *it*, has two forms, as follows: *My* or *mine*; *thy* or *thine*; *her* or *hers*; *our* or *ours*; *your* or *yours*; *their* or *theirs*. According to this arrangement, the first form, *my*, *thy*, &c., is always used before a noun denoting the object possessed; the second form, *mine*, *thine*, &c., never before that noun, but only referring to it as previously mentioned, or evident from the connection. The possessive case of nouns, is used in both ways. To this classification there is no important objection; and such as prefer it may readily adopt it, though, for reasons assigned (289), a different classification is here preferred. *Mine* and *thine* are sometimes used as possessives for *my* and *thy* (293).

241. Some, again, regard *my*, *thy*, &c., as the only form of the possessive case, and *mine*, *thine*, &c., not as a possessive case at all, but as a substitute for the possessive case of the pronoun and the noun referred to together, and that it is in the nominative or objective case, according as the noun referred to would be, in the full expression; thus, "Your book is old, *mine* is new," is equivalent to "Your book is old, *my book* is new." Hence it is inferred, that *mine* is not a possessive case, but a substitute for *my book*, and the nominative to *is*. This, though plausible, is obviously incorrect. If, instead of the pronoun *mine*, we substitute a noun, that noun will have to be in the possessive case; thus, "Your book is old, *John's* is new." The construction in these two sentences being identical, if "*John's*" be the possessive case, so also is "*mine*"; and if in the possessive, it can not be the nominative to "*is*." The mistake lies in considering *mine* a substitute for *my book*, whereas it really is a substitute only for *my*, including such a reference to the word *book* in the first part of the sentence, as renders its repetition in the second part not only unnecessary, but, according to the usage of the language, improper. The difference between the construction of the noun and the pronoun, in such sentences, is simply this: the possessives *mine*, *thine*, &c., according to usage, are never used before a noun, but the possessive of the noun is used both before a noun and after it. When it is deemed proper to express the noun after the pronoun, the form *mine*, &c., must be changed

for *my*, &c. Thus, we cannot say “*Mine* book,” but “*My* book;” but we can with equal propriety say, “*John’s* book,” or “The book is *John’s*.” See Appendix II., page 247.

242. In the same manner may be explained, the use of the possessive after transitive verbs in the active voice, and after prepositions; thus, “James lost his books, and I gave him *mine*,” meaning *my books*.—“A picture of the king’s,” is a picture of (i. e. from) the king’s pictures. So “A book of *mine*,” is a book of (from) my books. “A friend of *yours*,” is a friend of (from) your friends. It is worthy of notice, that though this use of the possessive after *of*, originally and strictly implies selection, or a *part* only, it has insensibly come to be used when no such selection is, or ever can be, intended. Thus we may say, “That house of *yours*,” “that farm of *yours*,” without intending to imply that any other houses or farms belong to you; and when we say, “That head of *yours*,” selection is obviously excluded by the sense.

243. In royal proclamations, charters, editorial articles, and the like, where there is no individual responsibility, *we* is frequently applied to one person.

244. *Thou* is now used only in the solemn style—in addresses to the Deity, or to some important object in nature,—or to mark special emphasis,—or in the language of contempt. *Ye*, the plural of *thou*, is seldom used (except as the subject of the imperative), and only in the solemn style. It is sometimes used as the objective for *you*; as, “Vain pomp and glory of this world, I hate *ye*!—*Shaks.*

245. *You*, the common plural of *thou*, is now used also to denote one person, but, even when it does so, it always takes a plural verb. This usage has become so fixed and uniform, that some eminent grammarians contend for its being regarded as singular. *No advantage, however, would be gained by adopting this proposal*, and it seems to accord much more with simplicity, as well as with fact, to regard it as a plural which has come to be used for the singular by the figure *enallagé* (1044,4). In certain kinds of writing (243), *we* is used in the same way, and so also is the corresponding pronoun in French, and some other modern languages, in which, however it is always regarded as a plural form.

246. The pronoun *it* is used in a variety of ways:—

1. Properly it is used instead of a neuter noun, word, or substantive phrase; as, “*Life* is short; *it* should be well improved.” “*Man* is a noun; *it* is irregular in the plural.” “James is a good scholar, and he knows *it*,” viz., that he is a good scholar. “And the burden that was upon *it* shall be cut off; for the Lord hath spoken *it*.—*Is. xxii. 25.*
2. It is used as an indefinite subject of the verb *to be*, followed by a predicate in any person or number; as, “*It* is *I*;” “*It* is *you* ;” “*It* is *they*,” &c.

3. It is used in the same manner after the verb *to be*, in interrogative sentences; as, "Who is *it*?" "What is *it*?" &c.
4. It is prefixed, as an introductory subject to such verbs as *to be*, *to happen*, *to become*, and the like, referring to an infinitive mood, or substantive phrase, which follows the verb, and is its true subject; as, "It is an honor for a man *to cease from strife*; i. e., To cease from strife is an honor for a man. "It has been proved, *that the earth revolves on its axis*;" i. e., *It*, namely, *that the earth revolves on its axis*, has been proved.
5. It is used indefinitely before certain verbs, to denote some cause unknown,—or general,—or well known, whose action is expressed by the verb; as, "*It rains*;" "*It snows*;" "*It thunders*;" "*It is cold*;" "*It is hot*," &c. Verbs before which *it* is thus used, are said to be impersonal (520).
6. It is sometimes used as a mere expletive; as, "Come and trip *it* as you go."

247. The possessives, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, should never be written *her's*, *it's*, *our's*, *your's*, *their's*.

248. *His* and *its*, before a noun, are possessive pronouns; without a noun following, they are the possessive case (292). *Her*, before a noun, is the possessive pronoun; without a noun, it is the objective case.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

249. *Myself (ourselves)*, *thyself (yourselves)*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, with their plurals, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*, are called *Compound personal pronouns*. They are used in two cases—the nominative and the objective. In the nominative they are emphatic, and are added to their respective personal pronouns, or are used instead of them; as, "I *myself* did it." "*Himself* shall come." In the objective they are *reflexive*, showing that the agent is also the object of his own act; as, "Judas went and hanged *himself*."

250. The simple pronouns, also, are sometimes used in a reflexive sense; as, "Thou hast hewed *thee* out a sepulchre, as he that heweth *him* out a sepulchre on high."—*Bible*.

251. *Ourselves* and *yourself* are used as compounds, corresponding to *we* and *you*, applied to an individual; as, "We *ourselves* will follow."—*Shaks.* "You must do it *yourself*."

252. The possessive *emphatic* or *reflexive*, is made by adding the word *own* to the possessives *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, &c. (295); as, "God created man in *his own* image."

PARSING.

253. Personal pronouns are parsed nearly like the substantives for which they stand (182). Thus, “I love”—*I* is a pronoun of the first person, masculine or feminine, in the nominative singular.

As an additional exercise, a reason may be assigned for each statement, thus:—

I is a *pronoun*, because it stands for a noun or name.

personal,—its form determines its person.

first person,—it represents the speaker.

Masculine, or *Feminine*,—it denotes male or female.

Nominative,—subject (595) of *love*.

Singular,—it denotes but one.

254. PRELIMINARY ORAL EXERCISE.

What is a pronoun (228)? What is a personal pronoun (233)? In the sentence, “John is in the garden; he says it is full of trees,” for what noun, or name, does the word *he* stand? Then what part of speech is *he*? Why? For what noun does the word *it* stand?—then what part of speech is *it*? Why? What other words stand instead of nouns? (Write a list of them on the blackboard.)

Write sentences, each containing one of these pronouns, and tell for what noun it stands.

Select the personal pronouns from sentences in any reading-lesson, or book, and say for what nouns they stand.

EXERCISES.

1. Parse the following list, as directed (253).—*I, thou, we, me, us, thine, he, him, she, hers, they, thee, them, its, theirs, you, her, ours, yours, mine, his, it;—myself, ourselves, yourself, himself, themselves.*

2. Select the personal pronouns in the following sentences, and parse them; if of the first or second person, state what they designate; if of the third, state the nouns for which they stand.

James says he is older than I; but I am taller than he.—That book is mine; take it and read it.—Let them do it themselves.—When you learn the lesson, come to me, and I will hear you say it.—They will go when we return.—Thou art the man.—Your knife is sharper than mine; lend it to me, if you please, till I mend my pen.

3. Write sentences, each of which shall contain a pronoun in the nominative case—in the possessive case—in the objective case.

4. Change the following sentences, so that the pronoun *it* shall be omitted, and the subject or thing spoken of shall stand first (246-4).

It is pleasant to see the sun. It is criminal to deceive. It is manifest that you have been deceived. It is said that the cholera has appeared in England. It is easy to talk.

II. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

255. A *Relative Pronoun* is one that relates to, and connects its clause with, a noun or pronoun before it called the *antecedent* (229); as, "The master *who* taught us."

256. The antecedent of a relative may be a noun—a pronoun—an infinitive mood—a clause of a sentence (636)—or any fact or thing implied in it; as, "A *king who* is just, makes his people happy;" "*He that* is wise, is wise for himself;" "*He who* reads all will not be able *to think*, without *which* it is impertinent to read; nor *to act*, without *which* it is impertinent to think;" "*We are bound to obey the Divine law, which* we cannot do without Divine aid;" "*The man was said to be innocent, which* he was not."

257. Relative pronouns are of two kinds, *Simple* and *Compound*.

258. The simple relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. *That* and *what* are indeclinable, and used only in the nominative and objective.

Who is masculine or feminine, and *which* is masculine, feminine, or neuter. They are declined thus:—

	Singular and Plural.	Singular and Plural.
<i>Nom.</i>	Who	Which
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose	Whose
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom	Which

259. *Who* is applied to persons only; as, "The boy *who* reads."

260. *Which* is applied to inferior animals, and things without life; as, "The dog *which* barks"—"The book *which* was lost."

261. This relative, as in Latin, sometimes, for the sake of greater perspicuity, has its antecedent repeated after it; as, "I gave him a knife

with an ivory handle, *which knife* he still has." This construction, however, is inelegant, and should be avoided.

262. *Which* is applied also to collective nouns, expressing collections of persons, when the reference is to the collection, and not to the persons composing it; as, "The committee *which* was appointed." Also to names of persons considered only as a word; as, "Nero, *which* is only another name for cruelty."

263. *Which* has for its possessive *whose*; as, "A religion *whose* origin is Divine." Instead of "*whose*," however, the objective with *of* before it is more common; as, "A religion the origin *of which* is Divine."

264. *That* is applied to both persons and things; as, "The boy *that* reads;" "the dog *that* barks;" "the book *that* was lost" (748).

265. *What* is applied to *things* only, and is never used but when the antecedent is omitted; as, "This is *what* I wanted:—

266. In this example, properly speaking, *what* neither *includes* the antecedent, nor has it understood, in the ordinary sense of that expression. If it included the antecedent, then *what* would be of two cases at the same time, which, if not absurd, is an anomaly not to be readily admitted. If the antecedent were understood, it could be supplied, and then the sentence would stand, "This is the *thing what* I wanted." But this is not English. The truth is, *what* is a simple relative, having, wherever used, like all other relatives, but one case; but yet it has this peculiarity of usage, that it always refers to a general antecedent omitted, but easily supplied by the mind, and to which belongs the other case in the construction. The antecedent referred to is always the word "*thing*" or "*things*," or some general or indefinite term, obvious from the sense. When that antecedent is expressed, the relative following must be *which* or *that*, but never *what*. Thus, "This is *what* I wanted," is equivalent to "This is *that which*, or the *thing which*, I wanted." Hence, though it is true that *what* is equivalent in meaning to *that which*, or *the thing which*, yet the error to which this has imperceptibly led, viz., that *what* is a compound relative, and includes the antecedent, should be carefully avoided.
—See Appendix III. p. 247.

267. The office of the relative is twofold:—

1. It is sometimes merely *additive* or *descriptive*, and connects its clause with the antecedent, for the purpose of further describing, without modifying it; thus used, it is a mere connective, nearly equivalent to *and* with a personal pronoun *he*, *she*, *it*, &c.; as, "Light is a body *which* moves with great celerity"="Light is a body, *and it* moves with great celerity."

2. It is more commonly *restrictive*, and connects its clause with the antecedent, in order to modify or restrict its meaning. Thus used, the relative with its clause is equivalent to an adjective; as, "Every thing which has life is an animal"—"Every living thing is an animal." When used in this way, the relative can not be resolved into *and* with a personal pronoun, for we can not say, "Every thing is an animal, *and it* has life."

268. The relatives *who* and *which* are used in both senses. *That* is used in restrictive, more commonly than in descriptive clauses.

269. *Which* is sometimes used as a demonstrative adjective pronoun (303), equivalent to *this* or *these*, and qualifies or limits the substantive following it (676); as, "Which things are an allegory"—"These things are an allegory."

270. In English, a relative must always be in the same sentence with its antecedent, and, if restrictive, in close connection with it. In Latin, the relative often has its antecedent in a preceding sentence, and connected with it by a conjunctive term. When this is the case, it should be rendered into English by a demonstrative, or personal pronoun. This difference of idiom should be carefully marked by classical students. See Lat. Gr., 295.

271. In such sentences as the following—"Shun such *as* are vicious"—"Send such *as* you have"—some grammarians consider the word *as* a relative: in the first example, as the nominative to *are*; and in the second, as the objective, governed by *have*. Others, more properly, regard it, in all such sentences, as a conjunction, and the expressions as elliptical—to be supplied thus: "Shun such *as* [those who] are vicious."—"Send such *as* [those which] you have."—See Appendix IV. 248.

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

272. The relatives *who*, *which*, and *what*, with *ever* or *soever* annexed, are called *compound relatives*. They are used instead of the simple relative and a general or indefinite antecedent; as, "Whosoever committeth sin is the servant of sin;" that is, "Any one or every one who committeth sin," &c. "Whatever is evil should be avoided;" that is, "Every thing which is evil," &c.

273. Like the relative *what*, the compound relatives are used only when the indefinite antecedent is omitted. Whenever that is expressed, the simple relative *who*, *which*, or *that*, should be used as in the preceding examples.

274. It is therefore not correct to say, either that these relatives *include* the antecedents, and so have two cases, or that the antecedent is understood. The same reasoning that is applied to the relative *what* (266), is equally applicable to the compound relatives, only it must be remembered that the antecedent referred to in these, and to which one of the cases properly belongs, is always a general or indefinite term.

275. In old writings, the antecedent word is sometimes expressed, either before or after the compound relative, for the sake of greater emphasis or precision; as, "Blessed is *he*, *whosoever* shall not be offended in me."—*Eng. Bible*. "Whosoever will, let him take the water of life." This usage, however, is now nearly obsolete, except with the word *whatever*; as, "Whatever you do, let it be done well."

276. *Whoso*, formerly used in the sense of *whoever*, or *whosoever*, is now obsolete.

277. *What*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*, *whichever*, or *whichsoever*, are often used before substantives, as a sort of indefinite adjective; as, "What money we had was taken away." "Whatever course you take, act uprightly." When thus used, the noun is sometimes placed between *what*, *which*, or *whose*, and *soever*; as, "What course soever"—"Into whose house soever ye enter" (856).

PARSING.

278. The relative is parsed by stating its gender, number, case, and antecedent [the gender and number being always the same as those of the antecedent (742)]; thus:—

"The boy *who* studies *what* is useful, will improve."

Who is a relative pronoun, masculine, in the nominative singular, and refers to "boy," as its antecedent.

What is a relative pronoun, neuter, in the nominative singular, and refers to "thing," or "that," as its antecedent, omitted: if supplied, *what* must be changed into *which* (266); thus, the *thing which*, or *that which*.

The pupil may assign reasons for the statements made in parsing, as exemplified (253).

EXERCISES ON THE RELATIVE.

1. Write on the blackboard a list of nouns, arranged in a column on the left side, and write after each its proper relative; thus, "The *man*—*who*;" "The *bird*—*which*."

2. In the following sentences, point out the relative, and the antecedent, or word to which it relates. Also state whether it is *additive* or *restrictive* (267):—

A man who is generous will be honored.—God, by whose kindness we live, whom we worship, who created all things, is eternal.—That is the book which I lost.—He who steals my purse, steals trash.—This is the boy whom we met.—This is the man that did it.—These are the books that you bought. The person who does no good, does harm.—The woman who was hurt, is well.—This is the cat, that killed the rat, that ate the malt, that lay in the house that Jack built.

3. In each of the following sentences, point out the compound relative—mention the antecedent omitted, to which it refers. Insert the antecedent in each sentence, and make the necessary change in the relative (273):—

Whoever steals my purse, steals trash.—Whoever does no good, does harm.—Whatever purifies the heart, fortifies it. Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye to them also.—Whoever sins, will suffer.—I love whoever loves me. Now whatsoever God hath said to thee, do.

4. In the following sentences, wherever it can be done, change the relative and antecedent for the compound relative:—

Bring with you every thing which you see.—Any one who told such a story, has been misinformed.—Any thing that is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.—Any thing that gives pain to others, deserves not the name of pleasure.—Every one who loves pleasure, will be a poor man.

III. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

279. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions, are called *Interrogative Pronouns*; as, “*Who* is there?”—“*Which* will you take?”—“*What* did he say?”

280. *Who* and *which* are declined like the relatives (258).

281. In questions, *who* is equivalent to *what person*; *which* and *what* have a noun following, to which, like an adjective, they belong; or they refer to one understood, but easily supplied: thus, “Who [what person] is there?”—“Which book will you take?”—“What [thing] did he say?”

282. *Who* applies to persons only; *which* and *what*, to persons or things.

283. As applied to persons, *who* inquires for the name; *which*, for the individual; *what*, for the character or occupation; as, “*Who* wrote that book?”—“Mr. Webster.”—“*Which* of them?”—“Noah Webster.”—“*What* is he?”—“A lexicographer.”

284. The same pronouns used responsively, in the beginning of a dependent clause (636), or in what is called the indirect question (i. e., in a way which, in an independent clause, would be a direct question), are properly neither *interrogatives* nor *relatives*, but a sort of *indefinite pronouns* (306). This will be best illustrated by an example:—

Interrogative.—“*Who* wrote that letter?”

Relative.—“I know the person *who* wrote that letter;” that is, I am acquainted with him.

Indefinite.—“I know *who* wrote that letter;” that is, I know by whom that letter was written.

285. It is necessary to these words being regarded as indefinites—1. That they begin a dependent clause; 2. That they do not ask a question; 3. That an antecedent can not be supplied without changing the sense; and 4. That the whole clause be either the subject of a verb, or the object of a verb or preposition. These remarks will apply to all the following examples: “I know *who* wrote that letter.”—“Tell me *who* wrote that letter.”—“Do you know *who* wrote that letter?”—“Nobody knows *who* he is.”—“Who he is, can not be known.”—“Did he tell you *who* he is?”—“We can not tell *which* is he.”—“I know not *what* I shall do.”—“It is uncertain to *whom* that book belongs.”—“Teach me *what* is truth and *what* is error.”

PARSING.

286. Interrogative pronouns, in both the direct and the indirect questions, are parsed by stating their gender, number, and case; thus:—

“*Who* comes? I know not *who* comes.”

Who is an interrogative pronoun, masculine or feminine in the nominative singular.

Who is an indefinite pronoun (or an interrogative pronoun used respectively), masculine or feminine, in the nominative singular.

Reasons may be assigned for each statement, as exemplified (253).

EXERCISES.

1. Point out in which of the following sentences, *who*, *which*, and *what* are *relatives*; in which, *interrogatives*; and in which, *indefinites*.

Who steals my purse, steals trash.—To whom did you give that book?—What I do, thou knowest not now.—Who you are, what you are, or to whom you belong, no one knows.—What shall I do?—Who built that house?—Do you know by whom that house was built?—Is that the man who built that house? Which book is yours?—Do you know which book is yours? I saw a book which was said to be yours.—I know which book is yours.—What in me is dark, illumine.—What is crooked, can not be made straight.—What is wanting, can not be numbered.—What is wanted?—I know what is wanted.

2. Write sentences, each of which shall contain one of these pronouns in one or other of these different senses.

IV. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

287. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS are words used, sometimes like adjectives, to qualify a noun, and sometimes like pronouns, to stand instead of nouns.

288. *Adjective Pronouns* are divided into four classes: *Possessive, Distributive, Demonstrative, and Indefinite.*

289. Adjectives used as nouns, or with a noun understood, commonly take the article *the* before them (201); as, *the young*; *the old*; *the good*, &c. Adjective pronouns do not.

290. Of the adjective pronouns, the *Possessives* (291) clearly have a double character. As an adjective, they qualify a noun, and as a pronoun, stand instead of a noun. The *Distributives*, *Demonstratives*, and *Indefinites*, as adjectives, qualify a noun expressed or understood, or they stand instead of a noun, and thus may be regarded sometimes as adjectives, and sometimes as pronouns. Hence they are classed by some grammarians as adjectives, and called *pronominal adjectives*; and by others as pronouns, and called *adjective pronouns*. The latter classification and name are here preferred, because they have been admitted into the grammars of almost all languages; and because a change of established nomenclature is an evil of so serious a kind, that it should not be incurred unless for the most urgent reasons. Still, it is a matter of little moment *in itself* which of these classifications is adopted. The principal point for the learner is, to know what words are adjective pronouns [or pronominal adjectives], and their character and use; and every teacher may adopt that classification and name which he prefers. For the convenience of such as prefer to consider them *pronominal adjectives*, they are classed as *definitives* (202-5).

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

291. The **Possessive Pronouns** are such as denote possession. They are *my, thy, his, her, its,—our, your, their—own.*

292. The possessive pronouns are derived from the personal, and combine the office of the adjective and pronoun, for they always limit one noun denoting the object possessed, and stand instead of another denoting the possessor. They agree with the possessive case of the personal pronoun in meaning, but differ from it in construction. The possessive pronoun, like the adjective, is always followed by its noun; as, "This is *my book*;" the possessive case of the personal is never followed by a noun, but refers to one known or previously expressed; as, "This book is *mine*." The possessive case of nouns is used both ways; as, "This is *John's book*;" or, "This book is *John's*."

293. Formerly *mine* and *thine* were used before a vowel, or the letter *l*, instead of *my* and *thy*; as, "Blot out all *mine* iniquities;" "Commune with *thine* heart." This form is still in use.

294. *His, her, and its*, when followed by a substantive, are possessive pronouns; not followed by a substantive. *his* is the possessive case of *he*; *her*, the objective case of *she*; and *its*, the possessive case of *it*. In the English Bible, *his* is neuter as well as masculine, and is used where *its* would now be used. See *Prov. xxiii. 31; Is. lx. 22.*

295. *Own* is not used as a possessive pronoun by itself, but is added to the other possessive pronouns, or to the possessive case of nouns, to render the possession expressed by them emphatic; as, "My *own* book;" "The boy's *own* book." The possessive pronoun, with *own* following it, may have its substantive understood; as, "This book is *my own*."

DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS.

296. The *Distributive* pronouns represent objects as taken separately. They are *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

297. *Each* denotes two or more objects taken separately.

298. *Every* denotes each of more than two objects taken individually, and comprehends them all.

299. *Either* means one of two, but not both. It is sometimes used for *each*; as, "On *either* side of the river."

300. *Neither* means *not either*.

301. The distributives are always of the third person singular, even when they relate to the persons speaking, or to those spoken to; as, "Each of *us*—*each* of *you*—*each* of *them*—has *his* faults."

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

302. The *Demonstrative* pronouns point out objects definitely. They are *this*, *that*, with their plurals, *these*, *those*, (692–694).

303. *Yon* and *which*, before a noun, seem more properly to belong to this class of words than to any other; as, "Yon trembling coward;" "Yon tall cliff;" "Which things are an allegory" = "These things," &c.

304. *Former* and *latter*, *first* and *last*, with *the* prefixed—though often used like *that* and *this*—referring to words contrasted, are properly adjectives (201).

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

305. The *Indefinite* pronouns designate objects indefinitely. They are, *none*, *any*, *all*, *such*, *whole*, *some*, *both*, *one* (used indefinitely), *other*, *another*. The three last are declined like nouns.

306. To these may be added *no*, *much*, *many*, *few*, *several*, and the like; also, *who*, *which*, and *what*, used responsively (284).

307. *One*, denoting a definite number, is a numeral adjective (205); as, "One man is sufficient." But *one*, referring indefinitely to an individual, is an indefinite pronoun. Thus used, with its noun following, it is inde-

clinable like the adjective, as, "One man's interest is not to be preferred to another's." Without its noun following, it is either singular or plural, and is declinable, like the substantive; as, "One is as good as another;" "One's interest is as good as another's;" "He took the old bird, and left the young ones;" "One might say." The same remark is applicable to the indefinites, *other* and *another*.

The expressions *the one—the other*, denoting contrast (692), have the singular form only; but they sometimes refer to antecedent words denoting more than one, regarded, however, either distributively or as a class; thus, "For that which befalleth the sons of men, befalleth beasts—as *the one* dieth, so dieth *the other*."—Eccl. iii. 19. See also, Philippians, 1, 16. For these words the French have a plural form, *les uns—les autres*, literally, *the ones—the others*.

308. *None* [*no one*] is used in both numbers, and is never followed by a substantive; as, "None is so rude;" "Among none is there more sobriety."

309. *Another* is a compound of the article *an* and *other*; sometimes written separately, *an other*.

310. *Some* is used with numerals, to signify *about*; as, "Some fifty years ago." This should not be imitated.

311. The expressions, *each other*, and *one another*, form what may be called *reciprocal* pronouns, and express a mutual relation between different persons. They have this peculiarity of construction, that the first word of each pair is in the nominative, in apposition with the plural subject, which it distributes; and the second, in the objective, governed by the transitive verb or preposition; as, "They loved *each other*," i.e., They loved *each* the other; "They wrote to *one another*," i.e., one to another (673). *Each other* applies to two; *one another*, to more than two.

312. Some of these indefinites, and words of similar signification, are sometimes used *adverbially* with the comparative degree; as, "Are you *any* better?" "I am *some* better;" "He is *none* the better—all the better," i.e., "Are you better in *any* degree?" &c.

PARSING.

313. Adjective Pronouns are parsed by stating the class to which they belong, and the word which they qualify, thus:—

"*Every* day brings *its own* duties."

Every is a distributive adjective pronoun, qualifying "day."

Its is a possessive adjective pronoun, emphatic, qualifying "duties."

Own is a dependent possessive adjective pronoun: joined with *its*, to render the possession expressed emphatic, (295).

EXERCISES ON ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

1. Point out the adjective pronouns in the following phrases and sentences, and parse them:—

Every man is, to some extent, the architect of his own fortune.—Do good to all men—injury to none.—All things come alike to all.—Your own friend, and your father's friend, forsake not.—This one, or that one, will answer my purpose; both are good.—Some men love their money more than their honor.—Every one of us has his weak points (301).

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON PRONOUNS.

In the following phrases and sentences, point out the pronouns, and parse them—each as already directed:—

Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old, he will not depart from it.—Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.—He is an object of pity, who can not respect himself.—Feeble are all those pleasures in which the heart has no share.—You may read the lesson yourself.—John and he lost themselves in the woods.—You and he may divide it between you.—You and she and I will divide it among ourselves.

EXERCISES ON ALL THE PRECEDING PARTS OF SPEECH.

In the following sentences, point out the nouns, articles, adjectives, and pronouns, in the order in which they occur, and parse them:—

My son, forget not my law; but let thy heart keep my commandments: For length of days, and long life, and peace, shall they add to thee.—Let not mercy and truth forsake thee; bind them about thy neck, write them upon the table of thy heart. Honor the Lord with thy substance, and with the first-fruits of all thine increase: So shall thy barns be filled with plenty, and thy presses shall burst out with new wine.—Happy is the man that findeth Wisdom.—Length of days is in her right hand, and in her left hand riches and honor.—Her ways are ways of pleasantness, and all her paths are peace.—“The sluggard will not plow by reason of the cold; therefore shall he beg in harvest, and have nothing.”—“The hand of the diligent maketh rich.”

THE VERB.

314. A VERB is a word used to express the *act, being, or state* of its subject (315); as, “John *runs* ;” “The boy *sleeps* ;” “We *are* ;” “He *is loved*.” Hence—

A word that expresses the *act, being, or state* of a person or thing, is a verb. Thus, we say, *runs* is a verb, because it expresses the act of *John*, &c.—See Appendix VI. p. 250.

315. The subject of a verb is that person or thing, whose *act, being, or state*, the verb expresses. Thus, in the preceding example, “*runs*” expresses the act of “*John*”—“*sleeps*,” the state of “*boy*,”—“*are*,” the being or existence of “*we*,” and “*is loved*,” the state of “*he*,” as the object acted upon (369). In like manner, in the sentences, “*Let him come* ;” “*I saw a man cutting wood* ;” “*let*” expresses the act of *thou* understood, denoting the person addressed—“*come*,” the act of “*him*,” and “*cutting*,” the act of “*man*.”

316. Verbs are of two kinds, *Transitive* and *Intransitive*.*

317. A TRANSITIVE verb expresses an act done by one person or thing to another; as, “James *strikes* the table ;” “The table *is struck* by James” (367).

318. An INTRANSITIVE verb expresses the *being* or *state* of its subject, or an *act* not done to another; as, “I *am* ;” “He *sleeps* ;” “You *run*.”

319. In this division, Transitive (passing over) verbs include all those which express an act that *passes over* from the actor to an object; or the meaning of which has such a reference to an object, as to render the expression of it necessary to complete the sense; as, “He *loves us* ;” “I *hear you* ;” “James *resembles his brother* ;” “He *has a book*.”

Intransitive verbs include all those which are not transitive, whether they express action or not; as, “I *am* ;” “You *walk* ;” “They *run*.”

320. These two classes of verbs may be thus distinguished:—

1. *Transitive* verbs in the active voice, require an *object* after them to complete the sense; as, “James *strikes* the *table* ;”—*Intransitive* verbs do not require an *object* after them, but the sense is complete without it; as, “He *sits* ;” “You *ride* ;” “The wind *blows* ;” “The wheel *turns*.”

2. As the object of a transitive active verb is in the objective case, any verb which makes sense with *me, thee, him, her, it, them*, after it, is transitive. A verb that does not make sense with one of these words after it, is intransitive; thus, *strikes* is transitive, because we can say, “James

*The division of verbs into transitive and intransitive has been so generally adopted and approved by the best grammarians, that any discussion of the subject is now unnecessary.

strikes me ;" *sleeps* is intransitive, because we cannot say, "James sleeps me." Hence—

When a verb in the active voice has an object, it is *transitive*; when it has not an object, it is *intransitive*.

3. In the use of *transitive* verbs, three things are always implied—the *actor*, the *act*, and the *object* acted upon: in the use of *intransitive* verbs there are only two—the *subject*, and the *being*, *state*, or *act* ascribed to it.

321. Intransitive verbs are sometimes rendered transitive—

1. When followed by a noun of the same, or similar signification, as an object; as, *intransitive*, "I run;" *transitive*, "I run a race."
2. By the addition of another word; as, *intransitive*, "I laugh;" *transitive*, "I laugh at."

322. The same verbs are sometimes used in a transitive, and sometimes in an intransitive sense. Thus, in the sentence, "Charity thinketh no evil," the verb is transitive. In the sentence, "Think on me," it is intransitive.

323. So also verbs, really transitive, are used intransitively, when they have no object, and the sense intended, being merely to denote an exercise, is complete without it. Thus, when we say, "That boy *reads* and *writes* well"—"*reads*" and "*writes*" are really transitive verbs; because, a person who reads and writes, must read and write *something*. Yet, as the sense is complete without the object, nothing more being intended than simply, "That boy is a good reader and writer," the verbs, as here used, are intransitive.

324. PRELIMINARY ORAL EXERCISE.

When we say, "John runs," what part of speech is John?—Why? What is the use of *runs* in the sentence? It tells what John does. Is what a person or thing does, the *act* of that person or thing? What part of speech are words that express the act of a person or thing? Verbs. Then what part of speech is *runs*?—Why? Of what is it that verbs express the act, being, or state? Of their subject. Whose act does *runs* express? Then what is John to the verb *runs*? When you say, "John runs," does it mean that he does anything to another? What sort of verbs express an act not done to another? What kind of a verb, then, is *runs*? If you say, "John cuts wood," which word tells what John does? Then what part of speech is *cuts*? Is it transitive or intransitive?—Why?

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, tell which words are verbs, and why—which are transitive, and why—which are intransitive, and why.

The boy studies grammar.—The girls play.—Grass grows in the meadows.—The farmer ploughs his field, and sows his

grain.—Romulus built Rome.—The sun shines.—The winds blow.—The tree fell.—Bring your books, and prepare your lessons.—Have you recited?—Who read last?—God created the heavens and the earth.—Columbus discovered America.

2. Write a list of nouns, or names of persons or of things, in a column on the left side of the blackboard; write after each, a word which tells something that each of these *does*; tell what part of speech that word is, and why: if a verb, whether transitive or intransitive, and why.

DIVISION OF VERBS.

325. In respect of form, verbs are divided into *Regular*, *Irregular*, and *Defective*.

326. A **REGULAR** verb is one that forms its *past tense* (415) in the indicative active, and its *past participle* (554) by adding *ed* to the present; as, present, *act*; past, *acted*; past participle, *acted*.

NOTE.—Verbs ending in *e* mute, drop *e* before *ed*; as, *love, loved, loved*, (68). See 494.

327. An **IRREGULAR** verb is one that does not form its *past tense* in the indicative active, and its *past participle*, by adding *ed* to the present; as, present, *write*; past, *wrote*; past participle, *written*.

328. A **DEFECTIVE** verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting. To this class belong chiefly, *Auxiliary* and *Impersonal* verbs.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

329. **AUXILIARY** (or helping) verbs are those by the help of which other verbs are inflected. They are, *do, have, be*;—*shall, will*;—*may, can, must*;—and, except *be*, they are used only in the present and the past tense; thus:—

Present. Do, have, shall, will, may, can, must.

Past. Did, had, should, would, might, could, ——

330. *Be, do, and have*, are also principal verbs, and, as such, belong to irregular verbs (512). *Be* is used as an auxiliary in all its parts (354).

For the inflection of auxiliaries with the principal verb, see 494, 507, and 516.

THE USE OF AUXILIARIES.

331. Verbs, now used as auxiliaries only, were probably at first used as independent verbs, and combined syntactically with the following verb in the infinitive—the sign *to* being in process of time omitted, as it now is after such verbs as *see*, *hear*, *feel*, &c. (877); thus, “I can [to] do”—“They will [to] write”—“We could [to] go,” &c.; and some grammarians contend that they should be so considered still (381).

332. *Shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, and their past tenses, *should*, *would*, &c., as auxiliaries, retain the personal endings of the second person singular; thus, *shalt*, *wilt*, *mayst*, *canst*—*shouldst*, *wouldst*, *mightst*, *couldst*. But in their present they do not retain the personal ending of the third person singular; thus, we say, *he shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*—not *he shalls*, *wills*, *mays*, *cans*. This will be seen by their use in the inflection of verbs.

333. *Do* is used as an auxiliary in the present tense, and *did* in the past, to render the expression emphatic; as, “*I do love*”—“*I did love*.” Also when the verb in these tenses is used interrogatively, or negatively; as, “*Does he study?*”—“*He does not study*.”—“*Did he go?*”—“*He did not go*.”—*Do* is used as an auxiliary in the second person singular of the imperative; as, “*Do thou love*.”

334. *Have* is used as an auxiliary in the *present-perfect* tense, and *had* in the *past-perfect*.

Shall and Will—Should and Would.

335. *Shall*, primarily and strictly, denotes present obligation; and *will*, present inclination, purpose, or volition, from which the futurity of the act, &c., is naturally inferred. But, as auxiliaries, the primary signification is lost sight of, and they are used simply to denote futurity—still modified, however, in their use, by their primary signification. They are usually distinguished as follows:—

SHALL and WILL, expressing RESOLUTION, PURPOSE, &c.

336. *Will* denotes the *purpose*, *resolution*, or *inclination*, of a person, in reference to his *own acts*; and *shall*, his *purpose*, &c., in reference to the acts of *others* over whom he has authority or power. As the purpose expressed may be that of the *speaker*, of the *person addressed*, or of the *person spoken of*, hence will arise the three following forms, viz.:—

FIRST FORM.—Expressing the resolution of the speaker. It is my purpose or intention that—I *will* write—you *shall* write—he *shall* write. Or, without a preceding clause: I *will* write—you *shall* write—he *shall* write.

SECOND FORM.—Expressing the resolution of the person addressed. It is your purpose, &c., that—I *shall* write—you *will* write—he *shall* write.

THIRD FORM.—Expressing the resolution of the person spoken of. It is his purpose, &c., that—I *shall* write—you *shall* write—he (himself) *will* write—he (another) *shall* write.

The second and third forms can not be used without a preceding clause,

337. Hence it is manifest that *will* expresses the *purpose, resolution, promise, &c.*, of the *subject* of the verb. Thus:

I will go,	{	expresses	{	My resolution, &c.
Thou will go,				Thy resolution, &c.
He will go,				His resolution, &c.

338. Fixed purpose or determination, however, is expressed in a more positive and absolute manner in the first person by *shall* than by *will*, because in this way, the person, as it were, divests himself of will, and puts himself entirely at the disposal of another. Thus, a person may say, "I shall go, though much against my inclination."

For this reason, *shall* is more polite and respectful in a promise, and more offensive in a threat, than *will*.

Interrogatively.

339. In asking questions, these auxiliaries in this sense, are used with reference to the will of the second person, to whom a question is always supposed to be addressed, and hence are used as in the second of the above forms; thus—

Shall I write? Will you write? Shall he write?—Equivalent to—

Is it your purpose that I shall write?—you will write?—he shall write?

SHALL and WILL expressing FUTURITY.

340. In regard to simple futurity, the use of *shall* and *will* is directly the reverse of what it is in the expression of resolution: that is, *will* takes the place of *shall*, and *shall* takes the place of *will*. In other words, when a person in reference to himself foretells what is future, *shall* is used; and in reference to others, *will* is used. Thus—

FIRST FORM.—I think that I *shall* go—that thou *wilt* go—that he *will* go. Or, without a preceding clause: I *shall* go—thou *wilt* go—he *will* go.

SECOND FORM.—You think that I *will* go—that you *shall* go—that he *will* go.

THIRD FORM.—He thinks that I *will* go—that you *will* go—that he (himself) *shall* go—that he (another) *will* go.

341. But when the thing foretold is regarded, either as pleasing, or repugnant, *shall* is used with reference to the first person, even when others are represented as foretelling; as—

You seem to think	{	that	{	I <i>shall</i> recover.
He seems to fear				I <i>shall</i> not recover.

Interrogatively respecting the future.

342. *Shall* is used interrogatively in the first and the second person, and *will* in the third; as, "Shall I arrive in time?"—"Shall you be at home to-morrow?"—"Will your brother be there?"

343. *Shall* is used, instead of *will*, after the conjunctions *if, provided, though, unless, &c.*—the adverbs *when, while, until, after, before, &c.*—and also after *whosoever*, or a relative pronoun in a restrictive clause (267-2); as, "If they *shall* enter into my rest"—"When he *shall* ap-

pear"—"There is nothing covered which *shall* not be revealed"—"Whoever *shall* put away his wife."

344. *Should*, the past tense of *shall*, and *would*, the past tense of *will*, are auxiliaries of the past potential; and, in dependent clauses, are used in the same manner after a past tense, that *shall* and *will* are used after the present or future. Hence, in the preceding examples (336 to 338), if the verb in the preceding clause is put in *past time*, *should* will take the place of *shall*, and *would*, the place of *will*, in the dependent clause; thus—

FIRST FORM.—*It was my purpose that I would write—you should write—he should write.*

So also in the other forms: and when there is no dependence on a preceding clause, these words will be used as in the first form.

May, can, must—might, could—to be.

345. *May* denotes present liberty or permission; *can*, present ability; and *must*, present obligation or necessity. They are used as auxiliaries in the present potential, to express these ideas.

346. *May* sometimes denotes mere possibility; as, "He *may* write, perhaps"—"It *may* rain to-morrow."

347. *May*, before the subject of the verb, is used to express a wish or prayer; as, "*May you be happy!*"

348. *Can*, in poetry, is sometimes used by euphony for *canst*; as, "Thou trees and stones *can* teach."—*Davies*.

349. *Might* and *could* express, in past time, the same ideas generally that are expressed by *may* and *can* in the present. They are used as auxiliaries in the past potential.

350. *Might*, before the subject, is also used to express a wish; as, "*Might it but turn out to be no worse than this!*"

351. Sometimes, in the English Bible, *might* is used for *may*; as, "These things I say, that ye *might* be saved."—*John v. 34.*

352. Combined with *have*, these form a new series of compound auxiliaries; thus, *shall have* and *will have* are auxiliaries of the future-perfect indicative; *may have*, *can have*, and *must have*, of the present-perfect potential; and *might have*, &c., of the past-perfect potential.

353. But though *may* denotes present liberty, *may have* does not denote *past liberty*, but only the present *possibility*; thus, "He *may have* written," means, It is possible that he has written. So also, *must have* does not denote *past necessity*, but present *certainty*; thus, "He *must have* written," means, There *is* no doubt he has written; it can not be otherwise.

354. The verb "*to be*" in all its moods and tenses, is used as an auxiliary in forming the passive voice; as, "I *am loved*;" "He *was loved*," &c. (507). Also, in the progressive form of the active voice; as, "I *am writing*;" "He *was writing*," &c. (506).

355. All these auxiliaries are sometimes used without their verb, to express, by ellipsis, the same thing as the full form of the verb, together

with its adjuncts, when that is used immediately before, either in the same or in a different tense; thus, "He writes poetry as well as I do," "I can write as well as he can;" "If you can not write, I will," "He will do that as well as I can;" "James can get his lesson as well as ever I could;" "He envies me as much as I do him."

356. The verb *do* (not auxiliary) is sometimes used as the substitute of another verb or phrase previously used; as, "We have not yet *found them all*, nor ever *shall do*."—*Milton*. "Lucretius wrote on the nature of things in Latin, as Empedocles *had already done* in Greek."—*Acton*.

EXERCISES.

1. Correct the errors in the following sentences, and give a reason for the correction:—

I will be a loser by that bargain.—I will be drowned and nobody shall help me. I will be punished if I do wrong.—You shall be punished if you do not reform.—It shall probably rain to-morrow.—If you shall come I shall come also. I will be compelled to go home.—I am resolved that I shall do my duty.—I purposed that if you would come home, I should pay you a visit.—I hope that I will see him.—I hoped that I would see him.—You promised that you should write me soon.—He shall come of his own accord, if encouragement will be given.

2. In the following, tell which expressions are right, and which are wrong, and why:—

It is thought he shall come.—It will be impossible to get ready in time.—Ye will not come to me.—Ye shall have your reward.—They should not do as as they ought.—We are resolved that we will do our duty.—They are resolved that they shall do their duty.—I am determined that you will do your duty.—I am sure you will do your duty. C

ANOMALOUS USAGE.

357. Several of these auxiliaries are sometimes used in a way which it is difficult, perhaps impossible, to explain in a satisfactory manner, and which may justly be regarded as *anomalous*. The following are a few of these:—

358. *Had* is sometimes used in poetry for *would*; as, "I had rather," "I had as lief," for, "I would rather," "I would as lief." Sometimes it is used for *would have*; as, "My fortune had [would have] been his."—*Dryden*. Sometimes for *might*; as, "Some men had [might] as well be schoolboys, as schoolmasters."

359. *Will* is sometimes used to express what is customary at the present time; as, "He will sometimes sit whole hours in the shade;" "He will read from morning till night."

360. *Would*, in like manner, is sometimes used to express what was customary in past time; as, "The old man *would* shake his years away," "He'd sit him down."
361. *Would* is sometimes used as a principal verb, equivalent to the present of *wish* or *desire*; as, "When I make a feast, I *would* my guests should praise it—not the cooks."—"When I *would* [when I wish to] do good, evil is present with me." Thus used, the subject in the first person is sometimes omitted; as, "Would God it were even,"—"I pray God;" "Would to God,"—"I pray to God."
362. *Would*, with a negative, used in this way, is not merely negative of a wish or desire, but implies strong opposition or refusal; as, "How often would I have gathered thy children—but ye *would not*;" "Ye *would* none of my reproof."
363. *Should* is used in all persons to denote *present duty*, and *should have*, to denote *past duty*; as, "You *should* write;" "I *should have* written;" "The rich *should* remember the poor." It often denotes merely a supposed future event; as, "If he *should* promise, he will perform." It is sometimes used in an indefinite sense after *that*; as, "It is surprising that you *should* say so."
364. *Should* and *would* are sometimes used to express an assertion in a softened manner; thus, instead of saying, "I think him insane"—"It seems to be improper," it is milder to say, "I *should* think him insane"—"It *would* seem to be improper."

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

365. The Accidents of verbs are *Voices*, *Moods*, *Tenses*, *Numbers*, and *Persons* (473*).

OF VOICE.

366. **VOICE** is a particular form of the verb, which shows the relation of the *subject* or thing spoken of, to the *action* expressed by the verb (494, 507).

367. Transitive verbs have two voices, called the *Active* and the *Passive*.

368. The **ACTIVE VOICE** (494) represents the subject of the verb as *acting*; as, "JAMES *strikes* the table."

369. The **PASSIVE VOICE** (507) represents the subject of the verb as *acted upon*; as, "The TABLE is *struck* by James."

In other words, the verb, in the active voice, expresses the *act* of its subject ;—in the passive, it expresses the *state* of its subject, as affected by the act. In the active voice, the subject of the verb *acts*—in the passive, it is *acted upon*.

370. It is manifest from these examples, that whether we use the active or the passive voice, the meaning is the same, except in certain verbs in the present tense (509). There is the same *act*, the same *actor*, and the same *object* acted upon. The difference is only in the *form* of expression. By the active voice, we represent the subject as *acting*; by the passive, as *acted upon*.—With the active voice, the actor in the *nominative case* is the subject of the verb (760); with the passive, the actor is in the *objective case* after a preposition (818).—In using the active voice, the object acted upon is in the *objective case*, governed by the verb (801); in using the passive, the object is in the *nominative case*, as the subject of the verb.

371. It is manifest, also, that when we know the act done, the person or thing doing it, and that to which it is done, we can always, by means of the two voices, express the fact in two different ways; thus, “God created the world;” or, “The world was created by God.” Also—

372. When the active voice is used, we may sometimes omit the object; thus, we can say, “John reads,” without saying what he reads (323); and when the passive is used, we may omit the agent or actor; thus, we can say, “The letter is written,” without stating by *whom*.

373. Hence, the following advantages arise from these two forms of expression :—

1. We can, by the form alone, direct attention, chiefly, either to the *actor*, or to that which is *acted upon*—to the former, by using the active voice—“God *created* the world”—to the latter, by using the passive—“The *world was created* by God.”

2. By means of the passive voice, we are able to state a fact, when we either do not know, or, for some reason, may not wish to state, by whom the act was done. Thus we can say, “The glass is broken,” though we do not know who broke it; or if we know, do not wish to tell.

3. By this means, also, we have a variety, and of course, a choice of expression, and may, at pleasure, use that which to us appears the most perspicuous, convenient, or elegant.

374. *Intransitive* verbs can have no distinction of voice, because they have no object which can be used as the subject in the passive. Their form is generally active; as, “I *stand* ;” “I *run*.” A few are used also in the passive form, but with the same sense as in the active; as, “He *is come* ;” “They *are gone* ;” equivalent to, “He *has come* ;” “They *have gone*.”

375. *Intransitive* verbs are sometimes rendered transitive, and so capable of a passive form—

1. By the addition of another word: thus, “I *laugh*,” is *intransitive*; “I *laugh at* (him)” is *transitive*; passive, “He *is laughed at* (by me).”

In parsing such examples, it is generally better in the active voice, to parse the words separately—*laugh*, as an intransitive verb, and *at* as a preposition, followed by its object; but in the passive voice, they must be parsed together as one word—a transitive verb, in the passive voice.

2. Intransitive verbs are transitive, when followed by a noun of similar signification as the object; as, intransitive, “I *run*;” transitive, active “I *run a race*;” passive, “A race *is run* by me.”

3. Intransitive verbs become transitive, when used in a *causative* sense; that is, when they denote the *causing* of that act or state which the verb properly expresses; as, “Walk your horse round the yard.”—“The proprietors *run* a stage-coach daily.” Passively, “Your horse *was walked* [made to walk] round the yard.”—“A stage-coach *is run* [made to run] daily by the proprietors.” Intransitive verbs, used in this way, are called CAUSATIVES.

4. Many verbs in the active voice, by an idiom peculiar to the English, are used in a sense nearly allied to the passive, but for which the passive will not always be a proper substitute. Thus, we say, “This field *ploughs well*”—“These lines *read smoothly*”—“This fruit *tastes bitter*”—“Linen *wears* better than cotton.” The idea here expressed is quite different from that expressed by the passive form: “This field *is well ploughed*”—“These lines *are smoothly read*.” Sometimes, however, the same idea is expressed by both forms: thus, “Wheat *sells* readily,” or, “*is sold* readily at an advanced price.” (Expressions of this kind are usually made in French by the reflected verb; thus, “Ce champ *se laboure* bien,”—“Ces lignes *se lisent* aisément.”) When used in this sense, they may properly be ranked with intransitive verbs, as they are never followed by an objective case.

M O O D S.

376. Mood is the *mode* or *manner* of expressing the signification of the verb.

377. In English Grammar, the moods are *five*; namely, the *Indicative*, *Potential*, *Subjunctive*, *Imperative*, and *Infinitive*.

378. The **INDICATIVE** mood declares the fact expressed by the verb, *simply* and *without limitation*; as, “He *is*,”—“He *loves*,”—“He *is loved*” (494, 507).

379. In other words, the indicative mood attributes to its subject the *act*, *being*, or *state*, expressed by the verb, simply and without limitation.

380. The **POTENTIAL** mood declares, not the fact expressed by the verb, but only its *possibility*, or the *liberty*, *power*, *will*, or *obligation*, of the subject with respect to it ; as, “The wind *may blow*”—“We *may walk*”—“I *can swim*”—“He *would not stay*”—“Children *should obey* their parents.”

In other words, the potential mood expresses, not what the subject *does*, or *is*, &c., but what it *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should do* or *be*, &c.

381. The auxiliaries *may*, *can*, &c., in the potential mood, in all probability, were at first independent verbs in the indicative, followed by the verb in the infinitive, without the sign *to* before it, as it is now used after such verbs as *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, &c. (877). Grammarians now generally combine them as one word, constituting a particular form of the verb, to which (from its leading use) they have given the name of *potential mood*. The indicative and potential both *declare*, but they declare different things ; the former declares what the subject *does* or *is* ; the latter what it *may* or *can*, &c., *do* or *be*. The declaration made by the indicative is simple ; that made by the potential is always complex, containing the idea of *liberty*, *power*, &c., in connection with the act. “He *writes*,” is the indicative of the verb *to write*. “He *can write*,” is the indicative of the verb *can*, with the infinitive *to write* ; or, combined, the potential of the verb *to write*.

382. Both the indicative and the potential mood are used *interrogatively* ; as, “Does he love ?”—“Can he write ?” They are also used without dependence on another verb, and express a complete idea in themselves. “James writes a letter,” and “James *can write a letter*,” are equally complete and independent sentences.

383. The **SUBJUNCTIVE** mood represents the fact expressed by the verb, not as actual, but as conditional, desirable, or contingent ; as, “If he *study*, he will improve.”—“O that thou *wert* as my brother.”

384. This mood, as its name implies, is always *subjoined* to, and dependent on, another verb expressed or understood. “If he *study*, he will improve.”—“O [I wish] that thou *wert*,” &c.

385. The subjunctive mood differs in form from the indicative in the *present tense* only ; in the verb *to be* in the present and past.

386. Both the indicative and the potential, with a conjunctive particle prefixed, are used subjunctively ; that is, they are used to express what is conditional, or contingent, and with dependence on another verb ; as, “If he *sleeps*, he will do well.”—“He would go if he *could*” (go).

387. In parsing, that only should be called the subjunctive mood, which has the subjunctive form. When the indicative or potential is used subjunctively, it should be so stated.

388. The conditionality or contingency, &c., expressed by this mood, is usually intimated by such conjunctions as *if*, *though*, *lest*, *unless*, *so*, &c., prefixed, which, however, make no part of the verb.

389. The same thing is sometimes expressed without the conjunction, by merely putting the verb or auxiliary before the subject or nominative; as, “*Had I*,” for “*If I had*”—“*Were he*,” for “*If he were*”—“*Had he gone*,”—for “*If he had gone*”—“*Would he but reform*,” for “*If he would but reform*,” &c.

390. Some grammarians consider the subjunctive present only as an abbreviated form of the future indicative, or the past potential, and that the supplement may always be made; thus, “*If he study*,” &c., that is, “*if he shall (or should) study*,” &c.—“*Though he [should] come*,” &c. This view is plausible, and may apply to the present tense of the subjunctive in most cases; but it will not apply to the past subjunctive of the verb *to be*, either as a principal or an auxiliary. For though we might say, “*If I should be*,” for “*If I be*,” yet we cannot say, “*If I should were*;” and there are some cases in which the present subjunctive form seems to be indispensable; as, “*See thou do it not*”—“*If he do but try, he will succeed*.” Still,—

391. The subjunctive mood, in its distinctive form, is now falling greatly into disuse. The tendency appears to be to lay it aside, and to use the indicative or potential in its stead, wherever it can be done. According to rule, the subjunctive form is used only when it has a future reference; as, “*If he come* [viz., at a future time] *he will be welcome*.” The same idea is expressed by saying, “*If he comes*” (406), “*If he shall come*”—or, “*If he should come*”—and one or other of these expressions is now generally preferred to the subjunctive. Formerly, in cases of supposition, the present subjunctive was used, whether it had a future reference or not; as, “*Though God be high, yet hath he respect to the lowly*.” In all such expressions, according to present usage, the present indicative would be used; thus, “*Though God is high*,” &c.

392. The IMPERATIVE mood *commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits*; as, “*Do this*”—“*Remember thy Creator*”—“*Hear, O my people*”—“*Go thy way*” (596).

393. The INFINITIVE mood expresses the meaning of the verb in a general manner, without any distinction of person or number; as, *to love*.

394. The infinitive is often used as a verbal noun (866, 867) in the nominative case, as the subject of a verb; as, “*To play is pleasant*.” Or, in the objective, as the object of a transitive verb in the active voice, or of a preposition; as, “*Boys love to play*”—“*He is about to go*”—“*What went ye out for to see?*”

395. The infinitive mood generally has no subject; yet the *act, being, or state*, expressed by it, is referable to some word connected with it. Thus, in the above examples, *to play* is referable to *boys*; *to go* is the act of *he*, &c.—See Appendix VI. p. 250.

396. But when the infinitive as a subject has its own subject, it is in the objective case, introduced by *for*; as, "For us to lie, is base." But when the infinitive with its subject is the object of a transitive verb, that subject in the objective case needs no connecting word; as, "We believe him to be sincere." Here, *him* is the subject of *to be*, and the whole clause, "him to be sincere" — "that he is sincere" is the object of "believe" (872).

397. The infinitive *active* by an anomaly not uncommon in other languages, is sometimes used in a *passive* sense; as, "You are to blame" (to be blamed) — "A house to let" — "A road to make" — "Goods made to sell" — "Knives to grind," &c.

TENSES.

398. TENSES are certain forms of the verb, which serve to point out the distinctions of time.

399. Time is naturally divided into the *past*, the *present*, and the *future*. The *past* includes all that goes before the present; the *future* includes all that comes after the present; and the *present*, strictly speaking, is the point in which the past and future meet, and which has, itself, no space or continuance. In grammar, however, the *present* is not regarded in this strict sense, but as extending to a greater or less period of which the passing instant forms a part; as, this *moment*, *hour*, *day*, *week*, &c. In each of these, an act, &c., may be expressed, either simply and indefinitely as *present*, or definitely as *completed*; and these are expressed by different forms of the verb called *tenses*. Hence—

400. The tenses in English are six—the *Present*, the *Present-perfect*, the *Past*, the *Past-perfect*, the *Future*, and the *Future-perfect*.*

401. Of these, the *present* and the *past*, in the indicative mood, and the *present* in the subjunctive, are simple tenses, consisting of the verb only; as, "*I love*" — "*I loved*." All the rest are compound, consisting of the auxiliary and the verb; as, "*I have loved*."

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

402. The *PRESENT* tense expresses what is going on at the present time; as, "*I love*" — "*I am loved*."

* The *past* tense in English does not correspond to the *imperfect* in Latin or Greek, but rather to the Greek *Aorist*. There is, therefore, no propriety in retaining the name *imperfect*. The Latin *imperfect* corresponds precisely to the *past-progressive* in English (506). So, also, the *present-perfect* does not correspond precisely to the Latin *perfect*, as that is used in an indefinite sense, like the Greek *Aorist*, and also in a definite sense, like the English *present-perfect*. The *past-perfect* corresponds to the *pluperfect* in Latin. The *future* and the *future-perfect* in English correspond to the tenses of the same name in Latin.—See Latin Grammar, § 44.

403. This tense is used also to express what is *habitual*, or *always true*; as, "He goes to church"—"Virtue is its own reward"—"Vice produces misery."

404. It is used, in animated narration, to express past events with force and interest, as if they were present; as, "Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy" (1046, 5).

405. It is used sometimes instead of the *present-perfect* tense, in speaking of authors long since dead, when reference is made to their works which still exist; as, "Moses tells us who were the descendants of Abraham"—"Virgil imitates Homer;" instead of "has told," "has imitated."

406. It is used in dependent clauses after such words as *when*, *before*, *if*, *as soon as*, *after*, *till*, and also after *relative pronouns*, to express the relative time of a future action, that is, of an action future at the time of speaking, but which will be present at the time referred to; as, "When he comes, he will be welcome"—"We shall get our letters as soon as the post arrives"—"He will kill every one [whom] he meets," &c.

"No longer mourn for me when I am dead."—*Shaks.*

407. The PRESENT-PERFECT tense represents an action or event as completed at the present time, or in a period of which the present forms a part; as, "I have sold my horse"—"I have walked six miles to-day"—"John has been busy this week"—"Many good books have been published this century." See 912.

408. The sign of the present-perfect is *have*—inflected, *have*, *hast*, *has*, or *hath*.

409. In the use of this tense, it matters not how long ago the act referred to may have been performed, if it was in a period reaching to and embracing the present, or a part of which is not yet past; as, "Many discoveries in the arts have been made since the days of Bacon," that is, in the period reaching from that time to the present. On the other hand, if the time of an act mentioned is past, and does not include the present, this tense can not be used however near the time may be. Thus, we can not properly say, "I have seen your friend a moment ago;" but, "I saw your friend," &c.

410. This tense is used to express an act or state continued through a period of time reaching to the present; as, "He has studied grammar six months"—"He has been absent [now] six years."

411. It is used to express acts long since completed, when the reference is not to the act of finishing, but to the thing finished and still existing; as, "Cicero has written orations"—"Moses has told us many important facts in his writings"—"Of old thou hast laid the foundation of the earth, and the heavens are the work of thy hand." But if the thing completed does not now exist, or if the reference is to the act of finishing, and not to the present continuance of the thing finished, this tense can not be used; thus, we can not say, "Cicero has written poems," because no such productions now remain. Nor, "In the beginning God

has created the heavens," because reference is only to the act of God at a certain past time indicated by the words, "In the beginning."

412. It is used in the same manner as the present (406), instead of the future-perfect, to represent an action, &c., as perfect at a future time; as, "The cock shall not crow, till thou *hast denied* me thrice."

413. Sometimes this tense is used in effect to *deny* the present existence of that of which the verb expresses the completion; as, "I *have been young*"—meaning, this is now finished—"I am young no more."

414. This tense corresponds to the Latin *perfect definite*.

415. The PAST tense expresses what took place in *past time*; as, "In the beginning, God *created* the heavens."—"God *said*, Let there be light."—"The ship *sailed* when the mail *arrived*." See 913.

416. The time expressed by this tense is regarded as *entirely past*, and, however near to the present, it does not embrace it; as, "I *saw* your friend a moment ago"—"I *wrote* yesterday."

417. In such expressions as "I *wrote this morning*"—"this week"—"this year," &c., the reference is to a point of time now entirely past, in these yet unfinished periods.

418. This tense is used to express what was *customary* in past time; as, "She *attended* church regularly all her life."

419. The PAST-PERFECT tense represents an action or event as completed at or before a certain past time; as, "I *had walked* six miles that day"—John *had been busy* that week"—"The ship *had sailed* when the mail arrived"—that is, the ship sailed *before* the mail arrived. See 914, 915.

420. The sign of the past-perfect is *had*; second person, *hadst*. This tense corresponds to the Latin *pluperfect*.

421. The FUTURE tense expresses what will take place in *future time*; as, "I *will see* you again, and your hearts *shall rejoice*."

422. The signs of the future are *shall*, *will*.

423. The FUTURE-PERFECT tense intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future; as, "I *shall have got* my lesson by ten o'clock"—"He *will have finished* his letter before you are ready."

424. The signs of the future-perfect are *shall have*, *will have*.

TENSES OF THE POTENTIAL MOOD.

425. The Potential mood has *four tenses*—the *Present*, the *Present-perfect*, the *Past*, and the *Past-perfect*.

426. The *Present* potential expresses *present liberty, power, or obligation*.

427. The signs of the *Present* are *may, can, must*.

428. The *Present-perfect*, in this mood, does not correspond in meaning to the same tense in the indicative, but more properly expresses *present possibility, liberty, necessity, &c.*, with respect to an act or state *supposed to be past*; thus, “*He may have written*,” means, *It is possible that he wrote, or has written*; “*He must have written*,” means, “*It must be that he wrote, or has written*.

429. The signs of the *Present-perfect* potential are, *may have, can have, must have*.

430. The *Past* potential is very indefinite with respect to time, being used to express *liberty, ability, purpose, or duty*, sometimes with regard to what is past, sometimes with regard to what is present, and sometimes with regard to what is future; thus—

Past—“*He could not do it then*, for he was otherwise engaged.”

Present—“*I would do it with pleasure now*, if I could.”

Future—“*If he would delay his journey a few days, I might, [could, would, or should] accompany him*.”

431. The signs of the *Past* potential are, *might, could, would, should*.

432. The *Past-perfect* potential, also, never corresponds in time to the *past-perfect* indicative; that is, it never represents an act, &c., as completed at a certain past time, but expresses the *liberty, ability, purpose, or duty*, with respect to the act or state expressed by the verb, as now past; thus, “*He could have written*,” means, “*He was able to write*.”

433. The signs of the *Past-perfect* potential are, *might have, could have, would have, should have*.

434. The *Future* and *Future-perfect* are wanting in the Potential.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

435. The Subjunctive mood, in its proper form, has only the *Present tense*. The verb “*to be*” has the *present* and the *past*. The indicative mood used *subjunctively* (386), furnishes what may be called a *second form of the present subjunctive*, and the *only form of the other subjunctive tenses*.

436. The *Present* subjunctive, in its proper form, according to present approved usage, has always a *future* reference; that is, it denotes a present uncertainty or contingency respecting a supposed *future* action or event; thus, "If he *write*," is equivalent to, "If he should write," or, "If he shall write."*

437. Uncertainty or contingency respecting a supposed *present* action or state, is expressed by the *present indicative* used subjunctively; as, "If he writes as well as he reads, he will succeed."

438. The PRESENT-PERFECT subjunctive is only the same tense of the indicative, used subjunctively. Such expressions as "If she *have brought* up children," &c. (1 Tim. v. 10), are now obsolete.

439. The *Past* subjunctive is used in two senses—

1. It is used to express a *past* action or state as conditional or contingent; as, "If he *wrote* that letter he deserves credit, and should be rewarded;" "If he *was* at home, I did not know it."

2. It expresses a supposition with respect to something *present*, and implies a denial of the thing supposed; as, "If I had the money now, I would pay it," implying, I have it not. Used in this way, the verb "*to be*" (and of course the passive voice of transitive verbs) has a separate form in the singular, but not in the plural, viz., *I were*, *thou wert*, *he were*; for *I was*, *thou wast*, *he was*; thus, "If my kingdom *were* of this world, then would my servants fight," implying, It is not of this world; "O that thou *wert* as my brother," implying, "thou art not."

440. In this way, the Past subjunctive seems to be always used when the conjunctive term is omitted, and the verb or auxiliary is placed before its nominative (389); as, "Hadst thou been here, my brother had not [would not have (358)] died."

441. When a supposition, &c., respecting something *past*, is expressed in this way, the *Past-perfect* must be used; as, "If I *had had* the money yesterday, I would have paid it," implying, I had it not; "O that thou *hadst been* as my brother," implying "thou *wast* not."

442. Though the past tense, used in this way, refers to a *present* act or state, yet, as it has the past form, it should, in parsing, be called the past tense.

* From this usage, some grammarians regard this as an elliptical form of the future, or of the past potential, in a future sense, the signs *shall* or *should* being omitted; and some have given it as a future, in the conjugation of the verb. However plausible this may appear, from the present prevailing usage, there can be no doubt that this, so called, elliptical future was formerly considered, and is even still used, as a *present* subjunctive. It is often used when the time is manifestly *present*, and in such a way that neither *shall*, nor *should*, nor any similar term, can be supplied without changing the sense; and where the present usage would require the present indicative; thus, "Though the Lord *be* [is] high," &c.—Ps. cxxxviii. 6. "If thou *be* [art] the son of God."—Matth. iv. 3, 6. "That which thou sowest is not quickened except it *die* [dies]."—1 Cor. xv. 36. "Whether he *be* [is] a sinner or not, I know not."—John ix. 25, &c.

TENSE OF THE IMPERATIVE MOOD.

443. The Imperative mood has only the present tense, and that has respect to the time of the *command, exhortation, &c.* The doing of the thing commanded, must, of course, be posterior to the command requiring it.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

444. The Infinitive mood has two tenses, the *Present* and the *Perfect*.* These do not so properly denote the *time* of the action, &c., as its *state* (446 and 449); as, “To write”—“To have written.”

445. In the other moods, the time expressed by the tenses, is estimated from the time of speaking, which is always regarded as present; as, “I wrote” (that is, in a time *now past*), “I write” (that is, in time *now present*), “I shall write” (that is, in time *now future*). But the infinitive represents the action or state expressed as *present*, not, however, always at the time of speaking, but at the time indicated by the preceding verb, or some other word in the sentence; as, “He wishes to write”—*now—to-morrow—next week, &c.*; “He wished to write” *then* (viz., at the time of wishing, *now past*)—*next day—this day—to-morrow, &c.*; “He will wish to write”—*then* (viz., at the time of wishing, *now future*)—*next day, &c.* Hence the following definitions:—

446. 1st. The *Present* infinitive expresses an act or state not finished, indefinitely, or at any time referred to, expressed or implied; as, “I wish to write”—“I wished to go”—“Apt to teach.”

447. The sign of the present infinitive is, *to* (549).

448. After the verb *to be*, the present infinitive is sometimes used to express a future action or event; as, “He is *to go*,” “If he were *to go*,” &c. (876-3).

449. 2d. The *Perfect* infinitive expresses an act or state as perfect or finished, at any time referred to, expressed or implied; as, “He is said *to have written*”—*already—yesterday—a year ago, &c.*

450. The sign of the perfect infinitive is, *to have*.

451. In the use of the infinitive it is necessary to observe, that the *Present* must never be used in circumstances which imply a *finished* act; nor the *Perfect* in circumstances which imply an act *not finished*. Thus, it is improper to say, “He is said *to write* yesterday,” because the language leads to regard the act as finished, since it took place in past time. It should be, “To have written yesterday (921). Nor can we say, “I hoped—I desired—I intended, &c.—*to have written* yesterday,” because an act regarded as perfect or finished, the doing of which, of course, is past, can not be the object of *hope, desire, intention, &c.* We should say, “I hoped *to write* yesterday” (920).

* The word *present* is omitted before *perfect* in designating this tense in the *infinitive* and *participles*, because the reference in these is only to the *state* of the act, &c., and not particularly to the *present time* (455).

PARTICIPLES.

452. A PARTICIPLE is a word which, as a verb, expresses an action or state, and, as an adjective, qualifies a noun or pronoun; as, "The man came *seeing*"—
"Having finished our task, we may play." See 494, 407.

453. Participles are so called, because they belong partly to the *verb*, and partly to the *adjective*. From the former, they have *signification*, *voice*, and *tense*; and they perform the *office* of the latter.

454. Verbs have three participles—the *present*, the *past*, and the *perfect*; as, *loving*, *loved*, *having loved*, in the active voice; and *being loved*, *loved*, *having been loved*, in the passive. See 494, 507.

455. The participles, taken by themselves, like the infinitive, do not so properly denote the *time* of an action, as its *state*; while the time of the act, whether progressive or finished, is indicated by the verb with which it is connected, or by some other word; thus, "I saw him *writing* yesterday;" "I see him *writing* now;" "I will see him *writing* to-morrow." In all these examples, *writing* expresses an act *present*, and still in progress at the time referred to; but with respect to the time of speaking, the act of writing, expressed in the first example, is past; in the second, it is *present*; and in the third, it is *future*, as indicated by the accompanying verbs, *saw*, *see*, *will see*.

456. The present participle active ends always in *ing*. In all verbs it has an active signification, and denotes an action or state as continuing and progressive; as, "James is *building* a house." In some verbs, it has also a passive progressive signification: as, "The house is *building*." Appendix VIII. p. 252.

457. This usage, some suppose, has its origin in the use of the verbal noun after *in*, to express the same idea; thus, "Forty and six years was this temple in *building*;" "And the house when it was *in building* was built of stone made ready—so that there was neither hammer nor axe heard in the house, while it was *in building*." In the absence of emphasis, the *in* being indistinctly uttered, came to be spoken, and consequently to be written, *a*; as, "While the ark was *a preparing*" (1 Pet. iii. 20), and finally to be omitted altogether. Similar changes of prepositions we have in the expressions, *a going*, *a running*, *a hunting*, *a fishing*, &c. Others, again, suppose that this ought to be regarded as an original idiom of the language, similar to the passive use of the infinitive active noticed before (397). But whether either of these is the true account of this matter or not, the fact is certain. It is therefore the duty of the grammarian to note the fact, though he may be unable to account for it. The following are examples: "This new tragedy was *acting*."—E. Everett. "An attempt was *making*."—D. Webster. "The fortress was *building*," &c.—Irving.

458. The *Present* participle passive has always a passive signification, but it has the same difference of meaning with respect to the time or state of the action as the present indicative passive (509).

459. The *Past* participle has the same form in both voices. In the *active voice*, it belongs equally to transitive and intransitive verbs—has always an active sense—forms, with the auxiliaries, the Present-perfect and Past-perfect tenses—and is never found but thus combined; as, “*has loved*,” “*had loved*,” &c. In the *passive voice* it has always a passive sense, and, with the verb *to be* as an auxiliary, forms the passive voice; as, “*He is loved*;” or without it, qualifies a noun or pronoun; as, “*A man loved by all, hated by none*.” The difference between the active and the passive participle will be seen in the following examples, viz.: ACTIVE—“*He has concealed a dagger under his cloak*;” PASSIVE—“*He has a dagger concealed under his cloak*.”

460. The *Perfect* participle is always compound (477), and represents an action or state as completed at the time referred to. It has always an active sense in the active voice, and a passive sense in the passive; as, ACTIVE: “*Having finished our task, we may play*.” PASSIVE: “*Our task having been finished, we may play*.”

461. The *Present* participle active, and the *Past* participle passive, when separated from the idea of time, become adjectives, and are usually called *participial* adjectives; as, “*An amusing storyA bound book*” (202–4).

462. The participle in *ing* is often used as a *verbal noun* (107–3), having the nominative and the objective case, but not the possessive. In this character, the participle of a transitive verb may still retain the government of the verb; as, “*In keeping his commandments there is a great reward*;” or, it may be divested of it by inserting an article before it, and the preposition *of* after it; as, “*In the keeping of his commandments*.” When *of* follows the participle, *the* or *a* (*an*) should precede it (899). But *of* can not be used before a preposition.

463. So also the *Perfect* participle; as, “*There is satisfaction in having done well*”—“*His having done his duty, was, afterward, a source of satisfaction*.”

NUMBER AND PERSON.

464. Every tense of the verb has two NUMBERS, the *Singular* and the *Plural*, corresponding to the singular and the plural of nouns and pronouns. The singular asserts of *one*; the plural, of more than one.

465. In each number, the verb has three PERSONS, called the *first*, *second* and *third*. The first asserts of the person *speaking*; the second, of the person *spoken to*; and the third, of the person or thing *spoken of*.

466. The subject of the verb, in the first person singular, is always *I*, in the plural, *we*; in the second person singular, *thou*, in the plural, *ye* or *you*; in the third person, the subject is the name of any person or thing spoken of, or a pronoun of the third person in its stead; also, it may be an infinitive mood, or a clause of a sentence, or any thing of which a person can think or speak (762).

467. In ordinary discourse, the imperative mood has only the second person, because a *command*, *exhortation*, &c., can be addressed only to the person or persons *spoken to*.

468. In such expressions as "*Let us love*,"—"Let *him* love,"—"Let *them* love,"—phrases by which the first and the third person of the imperative in some languages are rendered—*let* is the proper imperative, in the second person, with *thou* or *ye* as its subject understood, and *love* the infinitive without the sign (877). Thus, "Let [*thou*] us [*to*] love," &c.

469. This mode of expression is sometimes used, even when no definite individual is addressed; as, "Let there be light."

470. Among the poets, however, we sometimes find a *first* and a *third* person in the imperative; as, "*Confide we in ourselves alone*"—"With virtue be we armed."—*Hunt's Tasso*. "And rest we here, Matilda said."—*Scott*.

"Fall he that must beneath his rival's arm,
And live the rest secure from future harm."—*Pope*.
"Laugh those that can, weep those that may."—*Scott*.

471. Such expressions as "Hallowed be thy name"—"Thy kingdom come"—"Be it enacted"—"So be it," &c., may be regarded either as examples of the *third* person in the imperative, or as elliptical for "*May*," or, "*Let thy name be hallowed*"—"Let it be enacted"—"Let it be so," &c.

472. The *infinitive*, because it usually has no subject (872), has neither number nor person.

CONJUGATION.

473. The CONJUGATION of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *voices*, *moods*, *tenses*, *numbers*, and *persons*.*

474. In the active voice, most verbs have two forms—the *Common* and the *Progressive*. See Appendix VIII., I., 1, p. 252.

* INFLECTION properly speaking, is the making of those changes of form which the verb undergoes in its several parts; Conjugation is the combining or arranging of these forms in the several *voices*, *moods*, *tenses*, *numbers*, and *persons*, to which they belong. Both are usually included under the term *conjugation*.

1. The *Common* form expresses the simple existence of the fact; as, “He *speaks*”—“She *writes*”—“They *talk*.”
2. The *Progressive* form represents an action as begun, and in progress, but not completed. It is formed by annexing the present participle to the verb “*to be*,” through all its moods and tenses; as, “*I am writing*,” &c. (506).

475. Besides these, there is in the present and the past indicative, a third form, called the *Emphatic*, used to express a fact with emphasis or force. It is formed by prefixing to the verb the auxiliary *do*, in the present tense, and *did*, in the past; as, “*I do write*”—“*I did write*.” The other tenses, and also the progressive form and passive voice are rendered emphatic, by placing emphasis on the *auxiliary*; as, “*I have written*”—“*I am writing*”—“The letter *is written*.”

476. To these may be added, the *solemn* form of the third person singular, present indicative, ending in *th*, or *eth*, instead of the *common*, in *s* or *es*. Thus—solemn form, *loveth*, *hath loved*; common, *loves*, *has loved*.

477. The tenses of the verb, inflected without an auxiliary, are called SIMPLE tenses; those inflected with an auxiliary placed before the past participle, are called COMPOUND tenses.

478. The only regular terminations added to verbs are—

1. *The tense endings*: *ed* of the past tense and past participle (326 and note); and *ing* of the present participle.
2. *The personal endings*: *st*, or *est*, of the second person singular; as, *lovest*, *actest* (483); and *s*, *es*, or *eth*, of the third; as, *reads*, *teaches*, or *teacheth*. The other changes are made by auxiliaries.

479. In the present and the past tense, when *st* will easily coalesce with the final consonant, it is added in the same syllable; as, *saidst*, *lovedst*. But when it will not easily coalesce, or the verb ends in a vowel sound, *est* is commonly added, and forms another syllable; as, *wishest*, *teachest*, *lovest*, *goest*, *drawest*, *sayest*, *vexest*, *blessest*, &c.

480. In the present indicative, the endings of the third person singular, *s* and *es*, are subject to the rules for the plural number of nouns (137–142); as, *sits*, *reads*, *wishes*, *teaches*, *loves*, *goes*, *draws*, *carries*, *says*, &c.

481. In the solemn style, instead of *s* or *es*, the third person singular has *eth*, which always adds a syllable, except in *doth*, *hath*, *saith*, for *doeth*, *haveth*, *sayeth*.

482. The verb *need* is often used in the third person singular of the present tense, without the personal ending; as, “The truth *need* not be disguised”—“It *need* not be added.”

483. In annexing the tense and personal endings to the verb, the Rules III., IV., and VII., for spelling words (57, 60, 68), must be carefully observed.

484. In the present indicative active, the three persons in the plural, and the first in the singular, are alike. In the past tense, the three per-

sons in the plural, and the first and third in the singular, are all alike, except in the verb "to be," in which the form of the singular is different from that of the plural; thus, singular, *was*, *wast*, *was*—plural, *were*.

485. The principal parts of the verb are the *Present*, *indicative*, the *Past indicative*, and the *Past participle*.

In parsing, the mentioning of these parts is called *conjugating the verb*. Thus :—

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
<i>Regular</i> (326),	Love,	loved,	loved.
<i>Irregular</i> (327),	Write,	wrote,	written.

CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB "TO BE."

486. The irregular and intransitive verb "to be," is used as a principal verb, and also as an auxiliary in the passive voice, and in the progressive form of the active voice. It is thus inflected through all its moods and tenses :—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<i>Present</i> , am.	<i>Past</i> , was.	<i>Past participle</i> , been.
----------------------	--------------------	--------------------------------

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am.*	1. We are.
2. Thou art (244).	2. You are (245).
3. He is.	3. They are.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *have*.

1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. Thou hast been.	2. You have been.
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou wast.	2. You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

* *Be* and *beest* were formerly used in the present indicative : as, "We *be* true men"—*Bible*—for, We are true men.—"If thou *beest* he."—*Milton*.—"There *be* as many miseries beyond riches as on this side of them."—*Walton*. This usage is now obsolete.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *had*.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I had been. | 1. We had been. |
| 2. Thou hadst been. | 2. You had been. |
| 3. He had been. | 3. They had been. |

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, *shall*, *will*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I shall be. | 1. We shall be. |
| 2. Thou shalt be. | 2. You shall be. |
| 3. He shall be. | 3. They shall be. |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *shall have*, *will have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been. | 1. We shall have been. |
| 2. Thou shalt have been. | 2. You shall have been. |
| 3. He shall have been. | 3. They shall have been. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, *may*, *can*, *must*.—Inflect with each.*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I may be. | 1. We may be. |
| 2. Thou mayst be. | 2. You may be. |
| 3. He may be. | 3. They may be. |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *may have*, *can have*^{*}, or *must have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may have been. | 1. We may have been. |
| 2. Thou mayst have been. | 2. You may have been. |
| 3. He may have been. | 3. They may have been. |

PAST TENSE.

Signs, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I might be. | 1. We might be. |
| 2. Thou mightst be. | 2. You might be. |
| 3. He might be. | 3. They might be. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, *should have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might have been. | 1. We might have been. |
| 2. Thou mightst have been. | 2. You might have been. |
| 3. He might have been. | 3. They might have been. |

* *Can have* as an auxiliary, is not used in *affirmative* sentences.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD (487).

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. If* I be.
2. If thou be.
3. If he be.

Plural.

1. If we be..
2. If you be.
3. If they be.

PAST TENSE.

1. If I were.
 2. If thou wert, or were.
 3. If he were.
1. If we were.
 2. If you were.
 3. If they were.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

1. Be, or be thou.

Plural.

2. Be, or be ye or you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

To be.

PERFECT TENSE.

To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Being. PAST, Been. PERFECT, Having been.

487. All the tenses of the indicative, and also of the potential mood are used subjunctively, by placing the conjunction before them, thus : *Present*—"If I am," "If thou art," "If he is," &c. (386). *Present-perfect*—"If I have been," &c. *Past*—"If I was," &c.

488. The verb *to be*, followed by an infinitive, forms a particular future tense, which often expresses *duty*, *necessity*, or *purpose*; as, "Government *is to be supported*"—"We *are to pay our debts*"—"If we *were to depend on others*"—"If we *should depend*," &c. (876-3).

489. This verb has no progressive form. The emphatic form is used only in the imperative; as, "Do thou be"—"Do you be."

Anomalous Usage.

490. *Were* is sometimes used for *would be*; and *had been*, for *would have been*, as, "This *were* excellent advice."—Cowley. "It *were* a folly."—Sidney. "My fortune *had been* his," for *would have been* (358).—Dryden.

* The conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *lest*, *unless*, &c., do not form part of the subjunctive mood, but are placed before it to express a condition or contingency (388). The pupil may go over the indicative, as a subjunctive, with one or other of these conjunctions prefixed.

PARSING.

491. A verb is parsed by stating its *class* (transitive or intransitive) its *form* (regular or irregular), *conjugating* it if irregular* (485), and stating its *tense*, *mood*, *voice*, *person*, and *number*, and also the *subject* of which it affirms; thus,

“He *is*.”—*Is* is a verb, intransitive, irregular—*am*, *was*, *been*—found in the present, indicative, active—third person, singular, and affirms of its subject *he*.

492. Besides stating the several properties of the verb, as above, the teacher may occasionally require the pupil, as a sort of reviewing exercise, to assign a reason for each statement; thus,—

“*Is*—a verb, because it affirms being or existence of “*He*.”

intransitive—it has no object.

irregular—its past tense and past participle do not end in *ed*—*am*, *was*, *been*.

present—it refers to the present time.

indicative—it declares simply and without limitation.

active—its subject is not acted upon.

third person—its subject is spoken of.

singular—it asserts of but one, “*He*.”

As this process would consume much time, it, of course, can not often be used, and it is not necessary after the pupil is familiar with it, and prompt in assigning the reasons as above.

SENTENCES.

493. NOMINATIVE.

1. A sentence is an affirmation and must contain a *verb*, in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood, by which the affirmation is made; and a *subject*, of which the verb affirms. The subject is generally a noun or pronoun, in the nominative case; thus, the sentence, “God *is* good,” contains an affirmation. The verb *is* affirms of the noun *God*, which is of course its subject, and in the nominative case.

2. Sentences which have the verb in the imperative mood, contain a *command*, *exhortation*, &c. The *subject* is that to which the command is given (117).

3. The subject of a verb, except in the infinitive mood, is always in the nominative case.

4. When that which is affirmed of a subject in the nominative case, is something expressed by a noun or pronoun after the verb *to be*, that noun or pronoun is always in the nominative case, and called the *predicate-nominative*, or *nominative after the verb*; as, “Socrates *was* a philoso-

* In parsing, it will save time to omit conjugating the verb when it is regular, and it is unnecessary, because its being announced to be regular sufficiently ascertains its principal parts. All irregular verbs should be conjugated as in 513. Every teacher, however, will adopt the course which he prefers.

pher." Here *philosopher* is in the predicate-nominative, and expresses what the verb "was" affirms of its subject, "*Socrates.*" See 796.

EXERCISES.

1. State the *tense*, *mood*, *person*, and *number* of the verb "to be," in the following examples; thus, "*Am,*" present, indicative, active, first person singular.

2. Parse all the words. Thus, "*Am,*" a verb, intransitive, irregular—*am*, *was*, *been*—in the present, indicative, active, first person singular;—(491), and the pronouns as directed (253).

Am; *is*; *art*; *I was*; *we were*; *they are*; *you have been*; *she had been*; *he was*; *we will be*; *they shall be*; *we had been*; *hast been*; *hadst been*; *wast*.

We may be; they may have been; he might be; you might have been; you must be; they should have been; if I be; thou wert; though he were; if I had been; though I were; if we could have been; they might be.

Be; to be; do thou be; be ye; to have been; being; been; having been; be thou.

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB "TO LOVE."

494. The regular transitive verb "*To love*" is inflected through all its moods and tenses as follows:—

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, love.

Past, loved.

Past participle, loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.*

Singular.

1. I love.
2. Thou lovest.
3. He loves (*or loveth*).

Plurat.

1. We love.
2. You love.
3. They love.

*EMPHATIC FORMS.

PRESENT TENSE.

1. I do love.
2. Thou dost love.
3. He does love (*or doth love*).

1. We do love.
2. You do love.
3. They do love.

PAST TENSE.

1. I did love.
2. Thou didst love.
3. Hee did lovc.

1. We did love.
2. You did love.
3. They did love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *have*.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I have loved. | 1. We have loved. |
| 2. Thou hast loved. | 2. You have loved. |
| 3. He has loved. | 3. They have loved. |

PAST TENSE.

- | | |
|------------------|----------------|
| 1. I loved. | 1. We loved. |
| 2. Thou lovedst. | 2. You loved. |
| 3. He loved. | 3. They loved. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *had*.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I had loved. | 1. We had loved. |
| 2. Thou hadst loved. | 2. You had loved. |
| 3. He had loved. | 3. They had loved. |

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, *shall*, *will*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I shall love. | 1. We shall love. |
| 2. Thou shalt love. | 2. You shall love. |
| 3. He shall love. | 3. They shall love. |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *shall have*, *will have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I shall have loved. | 1. We shall have loved. |
| 2. Thou shalt have loved. | 2. You shall have loved. |
| 3. He shall have loved. | 3. They shall have loved. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, *may*, *can*, *must*.—Inflect with each.*Singular.*

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I may love. | 1. We may love. |
| 2. Thou mayst love. | 2. You may love. |
| 3. He may love. | 3. They may love. |

Plural.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *may have*, *can have*,* *must have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I may have loved. | 1. We may have loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst have loved. | 2. You may have loved. |
| 3. He may have loved. | 3. They may have loved. |

* *Can have*, as an auxiliary, is not used in affirmative sentences.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, *might*, *would*, *could* *should*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I might love. | 1. We might love. |
| 2. Thou mightst love. | 2. You might love. |
| 3. He might love. | 3. They might love. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, *should have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. I might have loved. | 1. We might have loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst have loved. | 2. You might have loved. |
| 3. He might have loved. | 3. They might have loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD (487).

PRESENT TENSE (435).

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|------------------|------------------|
| 1. If I love. | 1. If we love. |
| 2. If thou love. | 2. If you love. |
| 3. If he love. | 3. If they love. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular. *Plural.*

Common form. 2. Love, or love thou. 2. Love, or love ye or you.

Emphatic form. 2. Do thou love. 2. Do ye or you love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, To love. PERFECT, To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Loving. PAST, Loved. PERFECT, Having loved.

495. PRELIMINARY ORAL EXERCISE.

Review the exercise (324), and then proceed thus:—

When you say, "John loves learning," which word expresses what John *does*? What part of speech are words which express the *act* of a person or thing (314)? Then what part of speech is *loves*? Why?

Whose act does *loves* express? Then what is *John* to the verb *loves* (315)? Then *John* is the subject of *loves*.

What is it said that John *loves*? Learning. What does John do to learning? Of what class are verbs which express what one person or thing *does* to another (317)? Is *loves*, then, transitive or intransitive? Transitive.

Conjugate *love* (485). What is its past tense?—its past participle? In what do they end? Of what form are verbs which have the past tense and the past participle ending in *ed* (326)? Then is *love* regular or irregular? Regular—conjugated, *love*, *loved*, *loved*.

(Do all verbs form the past tense and the past participle by adding *ed*? Let us try. Is it right to say, "*I go?*" Would you say, "*I goed* to church yesterday?" What would you say? What are those verbs called which do not add *ed* to form the past tense and the past participle (327)? Then is "*go*" regular or irregular? Why?)

When you say, "John loves learning," does *loves* express a present, a past, or a future act? When a verb expresses a present act, in what tense is it (402)? In what tense, then, is *loves*? Present. Why?

(What would you say, to express the same act as past?—as future? Then what tense is *loved*?—*will love*?)

When you say, "John loves learning," do you declare a fact *simply*, or with any limitation? What mood declares an act simply (378)? Then what mood is *loves*? Indicative.

In this sentence, does the subject *John* act, or is acted upon? What voice represents the subject as acting (368)? Then what voice is *loves*?

Is *John* represented here as *speaking*, *spoken to*, or *spoken of*? What person represents the subject as *spoken of* (465)? Then what person is *loves*? Third person.

Does *loves* assert the act of one person, or of more than one? What number asserts of one (464)? Then what number is *loves*? Singular.

496. The facts ascertained by this process will stand in order, thus: "*Loves*"—a verb, transitive, regular, conjugated *love*, *loved*, *loved*—found in the present indicative, active, third person singular, and expresses the act of "*John*." This is called PARSING, in which the same order of statement should be observed.

497. This may be extended, by giving the reasons of each statement, as follows:

"*Loves*"—a verb, because it expresses an act of its subject (314).

transitive, because it expresses an act that passes over from the actor—*John* to an object *learning* (319).

regular, because its past tense and past participle end in *ed*. conjugated, *love*, *loved*, *loved* (485).

present,—it expresses what *John* does now (402).

indicative,—it expresses the act simply (378).

active,—it represents its subject as acting (368).

third person,—its subject is spoken of (465).

singular,—it asserts of only one (464).

EXERCISES, NO. I.

Inflect the following irregular verbs in the same manner as the verb "to love;"—taking care to use the past participle in the compound tenses (477).

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
Go	went	gone
Write	wrote	written
Do	did	done
Give	gave	given
Have	had	had

EXERCISES, NO. II.

1. In the following exercise, tell the tense, mood, voice, person and number, and always in this order, thus: "*Loves*"—Present, indicative, active, third person, singular.

2. In the Imperative, omit the *tense*, and say thus, "*Love thou*"—Imperative, active, second person, singular.

3. In the Infinitive and Participles, omit the person and number, and say thus, "*To love*"—Present, infinitive, active; "*Loving*"—Present participle, active.

N. B.—The pronoun prefixed is no part of the verb, but helps to show its person and number. The auxiliaries (or signs) are not taken separately, but always with the verb; so that the *two words*, and sometimes *three*, as in the future-perfect indicative, are parsed together as one word; thus, "*Has loved*"—the present-perfect, indicative, active, third person, singular.

He loves.—*We have loved.*—*He loved.*—*They had loved.*—*You shall love.*—*They may have loved.*—*We might love.*—*Love thou.*—*To love.*—*You had gone.*—*They will go.*—*To have gone.*—*We will write.*—*They may write.*—*They should go.*—*He has fallen.*—*You had given.*—*We might have gone.*—*James has written.*—*Robert loves to write.*—*To write is useful.*—*Writing is useful.*—*Having written.*—*We gave.*—*They have given.*—*You will give.*

EXERCISES, NO. III.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

498. A transitive verb, in the active voice, tells what its subject does to some other person or thing. That person or thing is the *object* of the verb, and is in the *objective* case. Thus, "*He loves us,*" *loves* is a transitive verb, in the active voice, and tells what its subject, *he*, does to *us*. *Us*, then, is its *object*, and is in the *objective* case. See also 320.

1. In the following exercises, tell which words are verbs, and why; whether transitive or intransitive, and why; what is the subject, and why; and if transitive, what is their object, and why.

2. Conjugate the verbs, and tell their tense, mood, voice, person, and number; thus, "*Loves*"—Verb, transitive, regular—love, loved, loved—in the present, indicative, active, third person, singular.

He loves us.—*I will love him.*—*Good boys study their lessons.*—*Children love play.*—*God created the world.*—*Remember thy Creator.*—*Do good to all men.*—*Forgive your enemies.*—*He that giveth to the poor (201) lendeth to the Lord.*—*You should study grammar.*—*We should read the best books.*—*Bad books injure the character.*—*War makes rogues, and peace hangs them.*—*Children, obey your parents.*—*A good cause makes a strong arm.*—*Show mercy, and thou shalt find it.*

EXERCISES, NO. IV.

PARSING.

In the preceding exercises (No. III.) parse each word in order; the noun, as directed (182); the article, as directed (194); the adjective, as directed (225); the pronoun, as directed (253), and the verb, as directed (491 or 496). Or, more fully, as an occasional exercise (492 or 497), thus;—

"Loves"—a verb, because it expresses an act, viz., of *he*.

transitive, because it has an object, *us* (498).

regular,—its past tense and past participle end in *ed*; conjugated, *love, loved, loved*.

present, because the act takes place in *present* time.

indicative,—it declares the fact *simply*.

third person,—its subject *he* is *spoken of*.

singular,—it asserts of but *one*.

Negative form of the Verb.

499. The verb is made to deny, by placing the word *not* after the simple form; as, "Thou lovest *not*;" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound form; as, "I do *not* love." When two auxiliaries are used, it is placed between them; as, "I would *not* have loved."

500. In the infinitive and participles, the negative is put first; as, "Not to love"—"Not loving"—"Not loved."

501. The simple form is seldom used with the negative. In the present and past tenses, the compound or emphatic form is more common. The following synopsis will show the manner of using the negative:—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. I do not love.	2. Thou dost not love, &c.
----------	-------------------	----------------------------

PRES-PERF.	1. I have not loved.	2. Thou hast not loved, &c.
------------	----------------------	-----------------------------

PAST.	1. I did not love.	2. Thou didst not love, &c.
-------	--------------------	-----------------------------

PAST-PERF.	1. I had not loved.	2. Thou hadst not loved, &c.
------------	---------------------	------------------------------

FUTURE.	1. I will not love.	2. Thou wilt not love, &c.
---------	---------------------	----------------------------

FUT.-PERF.	1. I shall not have loved.	2. Thou shalt not have loved, &c.
------------	----------------------------	-----------------------------------

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. I can not love.	2. Thou dost not love, &c.
----------	--------------------	----------------------------

PRES.-PERF.	1. I may not have loved.	2. Thou mayst not have loved, &c.
-------------	--------------------------	-----------------------------------

PAST.	1. I might not love.	2. Thou mightst not love, &c.
-------	----------------------	-------------------------------

PAST-PERF.	1. I might not have loved.	2. Thou mightst not have loved, &c.
------------	----------------------------	-------------------------------------

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD (487).

PRESENT. 1. *If I do not love.* 2. *If thou do not love, &c.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

2. *Love not, or do not thou love.* 2. *Love not, or do not ye love.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. Not to love.

PERFECT. Not to have loved.

PARTICIPLE.

PRESENT. Not loving.

PAST. Not loved.

PERFECT. Not having loved.

Interrogative form of the Verb.

502. The verb is made to ask a question by placing the nominative or subject after the simple form; as, "Lovest thou?" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound forms; as, "Do I love?" When there are two auxiliaries, the nominative is placed between them; as, "Shall I have loved?"

503. The subjunctive, imperative, infinitive, and participles, can not have the interrogative form.

504. The simple form of the verb is seldom used interrogatively. The following synopsis will show how the verb is put into the interrogative form.—

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT. 1. Do I love! 2. Dost thou love? &c.

PRES.-PERF. 1. Have I loved? 2. Hast thou loved? &c.

PAST. 1. Did I love? 2. Didst thou love? &c.

PAST-PERF. 1. Had I loved? 2. Hadst thou loved? &c.

FUTURE. 1. Shall I love? 2. Wilt thou love? &c.

FUT.-PERF. 1. Shall I have loved? 2. Wilt thou have loved? &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT. 1. May I love? 2. Canst thou love? &c.

PRES.-PERF. 1. May I have loved? 2. Canst thou have loved? &c.

PAST. 1. Might I love? 2. Couldst thou love? &c.

PAST-PERF. 1. Might I have loved? 2. Couldst thou have loved? &c.

505. Interrogative sentences are made negative by placing the negative either before or after the nominative; as, "Do I not love?" or, "Do not I love?"

EXERCISES.

1. Inflect the verb *to love* in the negative form.
2. Inflect the indicative, and potential, in the interrogative form.
3. Change the exercises (p. 90) into the negative form, and write them out.
4. Change the examples in the indicative and the potential into the interrogative form, and write them out.

Progressive form of the Active Voice.

506. The PROGRESSIVE form of the verb is inflected by prefixing the verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses, to the present participle; thus—

PRESENT.	1. I am writing.	2. Thou art writing, &c.
PRES.-PERF.	1. I have been writing.	2. Thou hast been writing, &c.
PAST.	1. I was writing.	2. Thou wast writing, &c.
PAST-PERF.	1. I had been writing.	2. Thou hadst been writing, &c.
FUTURE.	1. I shall be writing.	2. Thou shalt be writing, &c.
FUT.-PERF.	1. I shall or will have been writing.	2. Thou shalt or wilt have been writing, &c.

NOTE.—Verbs which in the common form imply *continuance*, do not usually admit of the progressive form; thus, “I am loving” (if proper), would mean nothing more than “I love.” Appendix VIII. 1, 2. p. 252.

EXERCISES.

1. Change the following verbs from the simple into the progressive form:—

He writes.—They read.—Thou teachest.—We have learned.
—He had written.—They go.—You will build.—I ran.—John has done it.—We taught.—He stands.—He stood.—They will stand.—They may read.—We can sew.—You should study.
—We might have read.

2. Change the following, from the progressive into the simple form:—

We are writing.—They were singing.—They have been riding.—We might be walking.—I may have been sleeping.—They are coming.—Thou art teaching.—They have been eating.—He has been moving.—We have been defending.

3. Parse these verbs, in the progressive form; thus, “*We are writing*”—“*are writing*” is a verb, transitive, irregular—*write, wrote, written*—in the present, indicative, active, first person, plural, progressive form.

4. Change the exercises, No. 2, into the negative form; thus, “*We are not writing*;”—into the interrogative form; as, “*Are we writing?*”—into the negative-interrogative form; as, “*Are we not writing?*” or, “*Are not we writing?*”

PASSIVE VOICE.

507. The PASSIVE voice is inflected by adding the past participle to the verb “*to be*,” as an auxiliary, through all its moods and tenses, thus (486):—

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, Am loved. *Past*, Was loved. *Past participle*, Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am loved.
2. Thou art loved.
3. He is loved.

Plural.

1. We are loved.
2. You are loved.
3. They are loved.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, have.

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I have been loved. | 1. We have been loved. |
| 2. Thou hast been loved. | 2. You have been loved. |
| 3. He has been loved. | 3. They have been loved. |

PAST TENSE.

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I was loved. | 1. We were loved. |
| 2. Thou wast loved. | 2. You were loved. |
| 3. He was loved. | 3. They were loved. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, had.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I had been loved. | 1. We had been loved. |
| 2. Thou hadst been loved. | 2. You had been loved. |
| 3. He had been loved. | 3. They had been loved. |

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, shall, will,—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall be loved. | 1. We shall be loved. |
| 2. Thou shalt be loved. | 2. You shall be loved. |
| 3. He shall be loved. | 3. They shall be loved. |

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, shall have, will have,—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I shall have been loved. | 1. We shall have been loved. |
| 2. Thou shalt have been loved. | 2. You shall have been loved. |
| 3. He shall have been loved. | 3. They shall have been loved. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, *may*, *can*, *must*.—Inflect with each.

*Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I may be loved. | 1. We may be loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst be loved. | 2. You may be loved. |
| 3. He may be loved. | 3. They may be loved. |

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *may have*, *can have*,* or *must have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been loved. | 1. We may have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst have been loved. | 2. You may have been loved. |
| 3. He may have been loved. | 3. They may have been loved. |

PAST TENSE.

Signs, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I might be loved. | 1. We might be loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst be loved. | 2. You might be loved. |
| 3. He might be loved. | 3. They might be loved. |

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, *should have*.—Inflect with each.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been loved. | 1. We might have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst have been loved. | 2. You might have been loved. |
| 3. He might have been loved. | 3. They might have been loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD (487).

PRESENT TENSE.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 1. If I be loved. | 1. If we be loved. |
| 2. If thou be loved. | 2. If you be loved. |
| 3. If he be loved. | 3. If they be loved. |

PAST TENSE.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I were loved. | 1. If we were loved. |
| 2. If thou wert or were loved. | 2. If you were loved. |
| 3. If he were loved. | 3. If they were loved. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|-------------------|------------------------|
| <i>Singlar.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
| 2. Be thou loved. | 2. Be ye or you loved. |

* *Can have* as an auxiliary, is not used in *affirmative* sentences.

† The conjunctions, *if*, *though*, *lest*, *unless*, &c., do not form part of the subjunctive mood, but are placed before it to express a condition or contingency (388). The pupil may go over the indicative, as a subjunctive, with one or other of these conjunctions prefixed.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, To be loved.

PERFECT, To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Being loved. PAST, Loved. PERFECT, Having been loved.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE PASSIVE VOICE.

508. The passive voice, in the finite moods, properly affirms of the subject the receiving of the act performed by the actor; and in all tenses, except the present, expresses passively the same thing that is expressed by the same tense in the active voice: thus, "Cæsar *conquered Gaul*," and "*Gaul was conquered by Cæsar*," express the same thing. Hence, the subject of the verb in the passive voice, is the object of the act, i.e., it is acted upon by the actor (369).

509. The present-passive has a somewhat different meaning in different verbs. In some, it represents the act as now in progress—in others, as now completed. In the *former*, it expresses passively the present continuance of the action, just as the present active does. Thus, "*James loves Robert*," and "*Robert is loved by James*," express precisely the same thing. In the *latter*, the present passive expresses not the continuance, but the result of the act now finished, as a predicate of the subject; as "*The house is built!*" The act of building is here represented not as continuing, but as completed; and the *result* of the act expressed by "*built*" is predicated of "*house*."

510. In all such verbs, the idea expressed by the present-passive differs from that expressed by the present-active; the latter expressing a continuing, the former, a completed act. A continuing act, in this class of verbs, can be expressed passively only when the participle in *ing* has a passive as well as an active sense (456).

511. There is no passive form corresponding to the progressive form in the active voice, except where the participle in *ing* is used passively; as, "*The house is building*." The form introduced within the last fifty years, and now defended by some grammarians, viz., "*The house is being built*," ought to be regarded only as a clumsy solecism. On this subject, see 457 and Appendix VIII, p. 252.

EXERCISES ON THE PASSIVE VOICE.

EXERCISES, NO. I.

Inflect the following verbs in the same manner as *am loved*, 507.

Present.

Past.

Past participle.

Am commanded,

was commanded,

commanded.

Am taught,

was taught,

taught.

Am told,

was told,

told.

Am placed,

was placed,

placed.

EXERCISES, NO. II.

1. In the following exercises, tell the *tense*, *mood*, *voice*, *number*, and *person*, and always in this order, viz.: "Is loved"—present, indicative, passive third person, singular.

2. In the imperative, omit the tense, and say thus: "Be ye loved," imperative, passive, second person, plural.

3. In the infinitive and participles, omit the person and number, and say thus: "To be loved," present infinitive, passive. "Being loved," present participle, passive.

They are loved; we were loved; thou art loved; it is loved; she was loved; he has been loved; you have been loved; I have been loved; thou hadst been loved; we shall be loved; thou wilt be loved; they will be loved; I shall have been loved; you will have been loved.

He can be loved; thou mayst be loved; she must be loved; they might be loved; ye would be loved; they should be loved; I could be loved; thou mayst have been loved; it may have been loved; you might have been loved; if I be loved; thou wert loved; we be loved; they be loved. Be thou loved; be ye loved; you be loved. To be loved; loved; having been loved; to have been loved; being loved.

4. Put the above exercises, first in the negative form, and then, in the indicative and potential mood, in the interrogative form, as directed (499 and 502).

EXERCISES, NO. III.

Change the exercises (page 90) into the passive form. Write them out, and then parse them; thus, "We are loved by him," &c. Put each example in the *negative* form, and those in the indicative or potential, in the *interrogative* form, as directed (499 and 502).

IRREGULAR VERBS.

512. An IRREGULAR verb is one that does not form its past tense in the indicative active, and its past participle, by adding *ed* to the present.

513. *.* The following list comprises nearly all the irregular verbs in the language. Those conjugated regularly, as well as irregularly, are marked with an R. Those in *italics* are obsolete, or obsolescent, and now but little used:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Awake	awoke, R.	awaked
Bake	baked	baked, <i>baken</i>
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bore, <i>bare</i>	born
Bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore, bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten, beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent, R.	bent, R.
Bereave	bereft, R.	bereft, R.
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bid, bade	bidden, bid
Bind, <i>un-</i>	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, <i>brake</i>	broken, <i>broke</i>
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build, <i>re-</i>	built, R.	built, R.
Burn	burnt, R.	burnt, R.
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught, R.	caught, R.
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, <i>to adhere</i>	cleaved, <i>clave</i>	cleaved
Cleave, <i>to split</i>	cleft, <i>clove</i>	cleft, R., cloven
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clad, R.	clad, R.
Come, <i>be-</i>	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Creep	crept	crept
Crow	crew, R.	crowed
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, <i>to venture</i>	durst	dared
Dare, <i>to challenge, is R.</i>	dared	dared
Deal	dealt	dealt, R.
Dig	dug, R.	dug, R.
Do, <i>mis-un-</i>	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Dream	dreamt	dreamt, R.
Drink	drank	drank, drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt, R.	dwelt, R.
Eat	ate, eat	eaten
Fall, <i>be-</i>	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get, <i>be- for-</i>	got, gat	gotten, got
Gild	gilt, R.	gilt, R.
Gird, <i>be- en-</i>	girt, R.	girt, R.
Give, <i>for- mis-</i>	gave	given
Go, <i>under-</i>	went	gone
Grave, <i>en- R.</i>	graved	graven, graved
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung	hung*
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove, R.	hoven, R.
Hew	hewed	hewn, R.
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold, <i>be- with-</i>	held	held, holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	knelt, R.	knelt, R.
Knit	knit, R.	knit, knitted
Know	knew	known

* *Hang*, to take away life by hanging, is regular, as, "The robber was hanged, but the gown was hung up."

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Lade, <i>to load</i> *	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead, <i>mis-</i>	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, <i>to recline</i>	lay	lain, <i>lien</i>
Light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown, R.
Pay, <i>re-</i>	paid	paid
Pen, <i>to enclose</i>	pent, R.	peñt, R.
Put	put	put
Quit	quit, R.	quit, R.
Read	read†	read†
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode, <i>rid</i>	ridden, <i>rid</i>
Ring	rang, rung	rung
Rise, <i>a-</i>	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven, R.
Run	ran, <i>run</i>	run
Saw	sawed	sawn, R.
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	seethed, sod	seethed, sodden
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set, <i>be-</i>	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape, <i>mis-</i>	shaped	shapen, R.
Shave	shaved	shaven, R.
Shear	sheared	shorn,

* Lade, *to dip*, is regular.† Pronounced *red*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone, R.	shone, R.
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Show	showed	shown, R.
Shrink	shrunk, <i>shran^k</i>	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang, sung	sung
Sink	sunk, <i>sank</i>	sunk
Sit	sat	sat
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Sling	slung, slang	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit, slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow, to scatter	sowed	sown, R.
Speak, <i>be-</i>	spoke, <i>spake</i>	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt, R.	spelt, R.
Spend, <i>mis-</i>	spent	spent
Spill	spilt, R.	spilt, R.
Spin	spun, <i>span</i>	spun
Spit, <i>be-</i>	spit, <i>spat</i>	spit
Split	split	split
Spread, <i>be-</i>	spread	spread
Spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
Stand; <i>with-</i> , &c.	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stunk or stank	stunk
Stride, <i>be-</i>	strode, strid	stridden, strid
Strike	struck	struck, <i>stricken</i>
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew,* <i>be-</i>	strewed	strewed, strewn

* *Strew* and *shew* are now giving way to *strow* and *show*, as they are pronounced.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past participle.</i>
Strow, <i>be-</i>	strowed	strowed, strown
Swear	sware, <i>sware</i>	sworn
Sweat	sweat, R.	sweat, R.
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen, R.
Swim	swam or <i>swum</i>	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take, <i>be-, &c.</i>	took	taken
Teach, <i>mis-re-</i>	taught	taught
Tear	tore, <i>tare</i>	torn
Tell	told	told
Think, <i>be-</i>	thought	thought
Thrive	thrived, <i>throve</i>	thriven, R.
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Wax	waxed	waxen, R.
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet, R.	wet, R.
Whet	whet, R.	whet, R.
Win	won	won
Wind	wound, R.	wound
Work	wrought, R.	wrought, R.
Wring	wrung, R.	wrung
Write	wrote	written

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

514. A DEFECTIVE verb is one in which some of the parts are wanting. The following list comprises the most important. They are irregular, and chiefly auxiliary:—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
Can	could	Shall	should
May	might	Will	would
Must	—	Wis	wist
Ought	—	Wit,	{
Quoth	quoth	Wot	wot

Imperative—Beware.

515. *Ought*, originally the past tense of *owe*, is now used to signify present duty; and *must* to denote present obligation or necessity. When they refer to past time, a change is made in the infinitive with which they are joined; thus, *Present*—"These things ye ought to do;" *Past*—"These things ye ought to have done." (436 and 420).

516. *Will*, as an auxiliary, has *wilt*, and *shall* has *shalt*, in the second person singular. They are both without inflection in the third person singular. *Will*, as a principal verb, is regular.

517. *Wis*, *wist*, which signifies *to know*, *to imagine*, is now obsolete. *Wit*, of the same meaning and origin, is now used only in the infinitive, in the phrase, "*to wit*," that is, "namely."

518. *Beware* (properly *be* and *ware*, or *wary*) is now used only in the imperative, and sometimes after an auxiliary; as, "*Beware of him*"—"We should *beware*."

519. *Quoth*, *to say*, *to speak*, is used only in ludicrous language; its nominative always comes after the verb, and it has no variation for person, number, or tense; as, "*Quoth he*"—"Quoth *they*," &c.

To defective verbs also properly belong—

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

520. *Impersonal verbs* are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They are always in the third person singular, and in English are preceded by the pronoun *it*; as, "*It rains*"—"It *hails*"—"It *behooves*," &c.

521. To this class of words belong the expressions, *methinks*, *methought*; *meseems*, *meseemed*; sometimes used for, "*It seems to me*"—"It appears to *me*," &c.

522. The pronoun *it* preceding the impersonal verb as its subject, is the substitute of some unknown and general, or well-known cause, the action of which is expressed by the verb, but which can not, or need not, itself be named (246-5).

EXERCISES.

1. Conjugate the following irregular verbs (485 and 513), stating why they are called irregular; also, which are transitive, and which are intransitive and why (320-1):—

Take, drive, creep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, catch, be-reave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get, give, go, feel,

forsake, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay, ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, slay, slide, smite, speak, stand, tell, win, write, weave, tear.

2. Take the first three transitive verbs of the preceding list; conjugate and inflect them through all their moods and tenses in the active and in the passive voice.

EXERCISES ON THE PRECEDING PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. In the following exercises, parse the several words; viz., the nouns as directed (182)—articles as (194)—adjectives as (225) pronouns as (253)—and verbs as (491 and 496).

[The words in *Italics* are *prepositions*, and the nouns or pronouns following them are in the *objective case*.]

The wind shakes the trees.—The apples fell *to* the ground.—God created all things.—The heavens are the work *of* his hands.—Alexander the Great conquered many countries.—The sun shines.—The fields are covered *with* grain.—The crops are excellent.—The rivers run *into* the sea.—A good man shows pity *to* the poor (201).—The fear *of* the Lord is the beginning *of* wisdom.—Remember thy Creator *in* the days *of* thy youth.—Time flies.—All things come *to* an end.—A bad man can not be happy.—Redeem time.—Do good to all men.—Truth is mighty.

2. Form a list of ten nouns; say something respecting each; and parse the sentences so formed, as above.

ADVERBS.

523. An ADVERB is a word joined to a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *adverb*, to modify it, or to denote some circumstance respecting it; as, “Ann speaks *distinctly*; she is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very correctly*.”

524. An adverb is generally equivalent to a modifying phrase, or adjunct (541) of the word to which it is joined. Thus, in the preceding example, “*distinctly*” means, *in a distinct manner*; “*remarkably*,” *in a remarkable degree*. So, “*now*” means, *at this time*; “*then*,” *at that time*, &c. Hence, adverbs and adverbial adjuncts are often used indiscriminately in modifying verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

525. On the same principle that an adverb modifies another adverb, it sometimes also modifies an adjunct, a phrase, or a sentence; as, "I met your brother *far from home*"—"He will be here *soon after mid-day*"—"We shall go *immediately after the mail arrives*."

526. A few adverbs are sometimes used as adjuncts of nouns and pronouns; as, I *only* [that is, I, and no one else] am escaped alone to tell thee."—"The women *also* were present," that is, the women *as well as the others—in addition to the others*.

The adverbs used in this way are such as the following: *Chiefly, particularly, especially, entirely, altogether, solely, only, merely, partly, also, likewise, too, &c.*

527. An adjunct, without the word to which it belongs, is called an *adverbial phrase*; as, *in short, in vain, in general, at most, at least, at all, on high*.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

528. Adverbs have been divided into various classes, according to their signification. The chief of these are the following:—

1. Adverbs of MANNER; as, *justly, bravely, softly, &c.*
2. Of PLACE; as, *here, there, where—hither, thence, &c.*
3. Of TIME; as, *now, then, when, soon, often, never, &c.* (929).
4. Of DIRECTION; as, *upward, downward, forward, &c.*
5. Of AFFIRMATION; as, *yes, verily, certainly, doubtless, &c.*
6. Of NEGATION; as, *nay, no, not, nowise, &c.*
7. Of INTERROGATION; as, *how? why? when? where? whither? &c.*
8. Of COMPARISON; as, *more, most, less, as, so, thus, &c.*
9. Of QUANTITY; as, *much, some, little, enough, sufficiently, &c.*
10. Of ORDER; as, *first, secondly, thirdly, next, &c.*

529. *There*, commonly used as an adverb of place, is often used as an introductory *expletive* to the verbs *to be, to come, to appear*, and some others, when the subject, in declaratory sentences, follows the verb; as, "There is no doubt of the fact"—"There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin"—"There appears to be a mistake somewhere." Sometimes, when the subject goes before, it is placed between the subject and the verb; as, "A mistake there is." In all such cases, *there* is a mere expletive. It adds nothing to the sense, but still it enables to vary the form of expression, and to soften the abruptness which would otherwise exist. This will appear by omitting it in any of the preceding examples.

Then does not always refer to time, but it is used to indicate a certain circumstance, or a case supposed; as, "If you will go, *then* [that is, in that case] say so."

Now is sometimes used without reference to time, merely to indicate the transition from one sentence to another; as, "Not this man, but Barabbas. *Now* Barabbas was a robber."

530. The words, *to-day*, *to-night*, *to-morrow*, *yesterday*, used as adjuncts, may be called adverbs of time, or they may be regarded as nouns in the objective case, without the governing word (828) or as nouns in any case the construction may require.

531. In comparison, *as* and *so*, in the antecedent clause, are usually reckoned adverbs, because they modify an adjective or another adverb. The corresponding *as* and *so*, sometimes called conjunctions, are properly adverbs also, because resolvable into an adjunct (524); thus, "It is *as* high as heaven," that is, It is high *in the degree in which* heaven is high.—"So far as I know," that is, far *to the extent to which* I know.

532. *So* is often used as the representative of a preceding word, phrase, or sentence, in order to prevent its repetition; as, "To make men *happy*, and keep them *so*"—"France is *highly cultivated*—England more *so*"—"James is *in good health*, John is not *so*"—"I believed that you would succeed, and I told you *so*".

533. *Therefore*, *wherefore*, *also*, sometimes called conjunctions, are more properly adverbs because used for the adjuncts, *for this reason*, *for which reason*, *in addition* (524).

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

534. A *Conjunctive Adverb* is one that stands for two adjuncts, one of which contains a relative pronoun, and the other, its antecedent; thus, "I will see you *when* you come." Here, *when* is equivalent to *at the time at which*; the first part, "*at the time*," modifies "*will see*," and the second, "*at which*," modifies "*come*." Again, "I know not *how* it is done." Here, *how* is equivalent to *the manner in which*. The first part, "*the manner*," is the object of "*know*," and the second, "*in which*," is the adjunct of "*is done*." In a similar way, *where* may be resolved into, *the place in which*; *whither*, into, *the place to which*, &c.

These adverbs perform a double office; they modify two different words, and connect the clauses to which they belong. They are, *when*, *where*, *while*, *whither*, *whence*. They are also used interrogatively, both directly and indirectly. Thus used, they are not conjunctive; as, "When [that is, *at what time*] will you come?"—"Thou knowest not whence [from what place] it cometh, and whither [to what place] it goeth."

FORMATION AND DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

535. Adverbs are either primitive or derivative.

1. A few adverbs are primitive, or derived from no other words in the language, as, *yes*, *no*, *not*, *here*, *there*, *now*, *then*, &c.

2. Many adverbs of quality or manner are derived from adjectives by adding *ly*; as, *diligent*, *diligently*; *happy*, *happily* (57); or by changing *le* into *ly*; as, *able*, *ably*; *simple*, *simply*. But adverbs are seldom formed from adjectives in *ly*, the adjunct being used in preference. Thus, we would not say, "He acted *manlily*," but "*in a manly manner*," or "*like a man*."

3. Many *compound* adverbs are formed by combining words together, so as of two or more words forming an adjunct, to make one compound term; as, *indeed*, *hereby*, *thereby*, *wherewith*, *therefore*, *wheresoever*, *nevertheless*, &c.

4. Some nouns and other words are converted into adverbs by prefixing *a*, signifying *at*, *in*, *on*, &c.; as, *abed*, *ashore*, *aloft*, *ahead*, *astern*, *aground*, *apart*, *adrift*, *afresh*, *alike*, *asleep*, &c. (190).

5. Many words are used sometimes as adverbs, and sometimes as other parts of speech; thus—

- Much* is used—1. As an adverb; as, “He is *much* better.”
- 2. As an adjective; as, “In *much* wisdom is *much* grief.”
- 3. As a noun; as, “Where *much* is given, *much* is required.”

Yesterday is used—1. As an adverb; as, “He came *yesterday*” (530).

- 2. As a noun; as, “*Yesterday* is past.”

But is used—1. As an adverb; as, “Give *but* one kind word.”

- 2. As a preposition (538); as, “None *but* the brave.”
- 3. As a conjunction (561); as, “He is poor, *but* honest.”

What is used—1. As an interrogative; as, “*What* is that?”

- 2. As a relative; as, “We speak *what* we know.”

- 3. As an adverb; as, “*What* [partly] with one thing, and *what* [partly] with another, we had enough to do.”

6. Circumstances of time, place, manner, &c., are often expressed by two or more words constituting an *adverbial phrase* (527 and 530); as, *at length*, *not at all*, *by no means*, *in vain*, *in order*, *long ago*, *by-and-by*, *all over*, *to and fro*, *forever*, &c. Such phrases may be taken together as one word, and parsed as an adverb, or *separately*, as other words, where it can be done, supplying the ellipsis when necessary.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

536. Adverbs of quality, derived from adjectives, and a few others, admit of comparison like adjectives; as, *nobly*, *more nobly*; *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*.

The following are compared irregularly; as—

<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Comp.</i>	<i>Sup.</i>
Badly, or ill,	worse,	worst.	Much,	more,	most.
Far,	farther,	farthest.	Well,	better,	best.
Little,	less,	least.			

PARSING.

537. An adverb is parsed by stating what part of speech—the class to which it belongs—the word which

it modifies—its derivation and comparison, if derived and compared. Thus :—

“He speaks *fluently*.”—*Fluently*, an adverb of manner, and modifies “speaks ;” derived from *fluent*, and compared *more fluently, most fluently*.

PRELIMINARY ORAL EXERCISE.

When we say, “John runs rapidly,” what part of speech is *John*? what is *runs* (314)? What is the use of the word *rapidly* in that sentence? What part of speech are those words which express the manner of doing a thing (528-1)? What part of speech, then, is *rapidly*? Why? Can you think of any other words that might be used to express the manner in which “John *runs*?”—“*Swiftly, slowly, well, ill*.” What part of speech are these words? Suppose you say, “John ran *yesterday*”—“John runs *now*”—“John will run *soon*”—what is the use of the words *yesterday, now, soon*? What are words called which express a circumstance of time (528-3)? Then what part of speech are *yesterday, now, soon*? Why?

What other words besides the verb do adverbs modify (523)? When we say, “John is a very good boy,” what word modifies *good*? What part of speech is *good*? Why? Then what part of speech is *very*? Why?

If I say, “John reads exceedingly well,” what word modifies *reads*? Ans. *Well*. Then what part of speech is *well*? Why? What word tells us *how* he reads? What word does *exceedingly* modify? Then what part of speech is it? Why?

EXERCISES.

1. Tell to what class the following adverbs belong—whether primitive or derivative—if not primitive how they are formed—compare, if compared :—

Justly, wisely, happily, beautifully, fashionably, sufficiently, thirdly, nearly, almost, perfectly.

Here, there, anywhere, hither, thither, yes, no, thence, somewhere—now, then, to-day, hereafter.

2. Form sentences, each of which will contain one of the preceding adverbs. Parse as directed (537).

EXERCISES ON ADVERBS, IRREGULAR VERBS, ETC.

Parse the following exercises as in “General Exercises,” p. 103, and (537):—

Peter wept bitterly.—He is here now.—She went away yesterday.—They came to-day.—They will perhaps buy some tomorrow.—Ye shall know hereafter.—She sang sweetly.—Great men are not always wise.—Mary rose up hastily.—They that

have enough may soundly sleep.—Cain wickedly slew his brother.—I saw him long ago.—He is a very good man.—Sooner or later all must die.—You read too little.—They talk too much.—James acted wisely.—How many lines can you repeat?—You ran hastily.—He speaks fluently.—Then were they glad.—He fell fast asleep.—She could not hold her head still.—The ship was driven ashore.—No, indeed.—They are all alike.—Let him that is athirst drink freely. The oftener you read with attention, the more you will improve.—Will you be at home when I come?—James will sit here, while you stand there.—As for this man, we know not whence he is.

PREPOSITIONS.

538. A PREPOSITION is a word which shows the relation between a noun or pronoun following it, and some other word in the sentence; as, “*The love of money.*”—“*Come to me.*”

539. Of the words related, that before the preposition is called the *antecedent term* of the relation, and that which follows it is called the *subsequent term*. This, being governed by the preposition, is also called its *regimen*, as in the examples above.

540. Instead of a noun or pronoun, a preposition may be followed by an infinitive mood, or clause of a sentence, used as a substantive; as, “*We are about to depart.*”—“*Honored for having done his duty.*”—“*The crime of being a young man.*”

541. The preposition and its regimen united are called the *adjunct of the antecedent term*; and the antecedent term, as related to its adjunct, may be called the *principal*. It is usually a *noun*, or *pronoun*, an *adjective*, a *verb*, or an *adverb*; as, “*The waters of Jordan.*”—“*He with the book in his hand.*”—“*It is good for me.*”—“*Pray for us.*”—“*He acts consistently with his principles.*”

542. The same word not unfrequently has several adjuncts; as, “*He WENT from Boston, by railroad, to New York, in eight hours.*” Also the noun or pronoun in the adjunct, may be limited by one or more adjuncts—the whole forming a compound adjunct; as, “*It is CONSISTENT with the character of a man of honor.*” Here, “*of honor*” is the adjunct of *man*, “*of a man of honor*” is a compound adjunct of *character*; and the whole, “*with the character of a man of honor;*” is a compound adjunct of *consistent*.

543. The preposition is so called because it is usually placed *before* its regimen, as in the above examples. Sometimes, however, the sentence may be so inverted that the preposition *follows* its regimen immediately, or at some distance; as, “*Where echo walks the steep hills among.*”—“*Whom did he speak to?*”

544. In the natural order of a sentence, the adjunct follows its principal; as, "He withdrew *after supper*." It is often convenient, however, to arrange the adjunct first; as, "*After supper*, he withdrew with his friend who had called for him." Here the same sense can not be given by placing the adjunct, "after supper," anywhere else in the sentence.

545. LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

To be committed accurately to memory.

About	Behind	From	Through
Above	Beneath	In	Throughout
Across	Beside } After Besides }	Into	Till
		Notwithstanding	To
Against	Between	Of	Touching
Along	Betwixt	Off	Toward }
Amid } Amidst }	Beyond But	On	Towards }
		Over	Under
Among } Amongst }	By Concerning	Out of Past	Underneath Until
Around	Down	Pending	Unto
At	During	Regarding	Up
Athwart	Ere	Respecting	Upon
Bating	Except	Round	With
Before	Excepting	Save	Within
Below	For	Since	Without

546. *Concerning*, *excepting*, *regarding*, *respecting*, and *touching*, were originally present participles active, of transitive verbs, and as such required an objective case after them (801). They may frequently be so construed still. *During* may be regarded as originally the present participle active, of an intransitive verb, having the noun or pronoun in the nominative case absolute (769); thus, "*During life*," means *life during*, or *while life endures*. *Notwithstanding*, a compound of *not*, and the present participle *withstanding*, may be explained the same way. Still, when used as a preposition, the word following must be regarded as in the objective case (818).

547. *Except* and *save* were originally imperatives. *Out of* may be regarded either as two words—an adverb and preposition—or as one word, forming a sort of compound preposition. Of this character are the following: *From between*, *from beyond*, *from within*, *from without*, *over against*, and the like. *Off* is, for the most part, an adverb, and means *at a distance*; as, "*Far off*." With a noun or pronoun following, it is a preposition, and means *not on*, *from*, &c.; as, "*Off the table*."

548. The word *a* in the sense of *at*, *in*, *on*, *to*, *of*, &c., has the force of a preposition in such expressions as *a reading*, *a running*, *a going*, *a hunting*, &c. (190), and may be parsed as such. The same word is used as a prefix in such words as *aboard*, *ashore*, *asleep*, *abed*, *afloat*, &c. (190).

549. *To*, the sign of the infinitive mood, should not be regarded as a preposition, but as a sort of verbal prefix belonging to the form of the verb in that part.

550. When a preposition has not an object, it becomes an *adverb*; as, "He rides *about*." But in such phrases as *cast up*, *hold out*, *fall on*, &c., *up*, *out*, *on*, should be considered as parts of the verbs to which they are joined, rather than as prepositions or adverbs.

551. Several words in the preceding list are used sometimes as prepositions and sometimes as other parts of speech; as, thus, *till*, *until*, *after*, *before*, &c., are frequently adverbs. *But* and *save*, followed by the objective case, are used as prepositions; followed by a nominative, they are conjunctions. *For* and *since* are also used as conjunctions.

552. All words used as prepositions are followed by an *objective case*, and may by this be distinguished from other words.

PARSING.

553. A preposition is parsed by stating what part of speech, and between what words it shows the relation; thus, "The waters *of* Jordan." *Of* is a preposition, and shows the relation between *Jordan* and *waters*.

Here *Jordan* is the *regimeū* of the preposition *of*; *of Jordan* is the *adjunct* of *waters*; and *waters* is the *principal* to which the adjunct belongs.

554. PRELIMINARY ORAL EXERCISE.

When I say, "The book is *on* the table," what word shows the relation of *book* to *the table*? What part of speech are words that show the relation between nouns or pronouns, and other words in the sentence? Then what part of speech is *on*? Could the book be in any other relation to the table than *on* it? It might be *off* the table, *above* the table, *under* the table, *beside* the table, &c. Then what part of speech are *off*, *above*, *under*, *beside*? Why? When we say, "They live *in* the country," what word shows the relation between *country* and *live*? Then what part of speech is *in*?

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, point out the preposition, and the words between which it shows the relation. Name the *adjunct* and *principal*. In what sentences has the *principal* more than one *adjunct*?—in what, a compound *adjunct*?

He went from Boston.—He went to Washington.—He went from Boston to Washington.—We reside in the country.—All rivers flow into the sea.—He gave his book to me.—He gave [to] me his book.—Flowers bloom in summer.—In summer flowers bloom.—He gave part of his dinner to a poor man in the street.—He was traveling toward Rome when he met him

at Milan, without a single attendant.—Be kind one to another.—The love of money is the root of all evil.—Do good to all men.—Be not overcome of evil, but overcome evil with good.—For his gallant conduct in rescuing so many from a watery grave, he was highly honored.

2. In the preceding exercises, parse each word in order as directed, p. 103, and Nos. 537 and 553.

INTERJECTIONS.

555. An **INTERJECTION** is a word used in exclamations, to express an emotion of the mind ; as, “Oh ! what a fall was there !”

556. The *Interjection* is so called, because it is, as it were, *thrown in among* the words of a sentence, without any grammatical connection with them. Sometimes it stands at the beginning of a sentence, sometimes in the middle, and sometimes it stands alone, as if the emotion were too strong to admit of other words being spoken.

A LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

557. The following is a list of the interjections most commonly used. They express various kinds of emotions, but in so vague and indefinite a way, as not to admit of accurate classification :—

Ah ! alas ! O ! oh ! ha ! fudge ! tush ! pshaw ! poh ! pugh ! fie ! avaunt ! ho ! holla ! aha ! hurrah ! huzza ! bravo ! hist ! hush ! heigho ! heyday ! hail ! lo ! welcome ! halloo ! adieu ! &c.

558. Also some words belonging to other parts of speech, when uttered in an unconnected and forcible manner, to express emotion, are called interjections ; as, *nonsense ! strange ! wonderful ! shocking ! what ! behold ! off ! away ! hark ! come ! well done ! welcome ! &c.*

559. *O* is used to express wishing or exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or pronoun, in a direct address ; as, “*O Virtue ! how amiable thou art !*” *Oh* is used detached from the word, with a point of exclamation after it, or after the next word. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise ; as, “*Oh ! what a sight is here !*”

PARSING.

560. An *interjection* is parsed by stating the part of speech, why, and the emotion expressed ; as, “*Oh ! what a sight is here !*”

Oh—an interjection, because used as an exclamation, and expresses an emotion of pain.

CONJUNCTIONS.

561. A CONJUNCTION is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences; as, “He *and* I must go, *but* you may stay.”—“Of him, *and* through him, *and* to him, are all things.”

562. Here, *and* connects the words *He* and *I*, and *but* connects the sentences, “*He and I must go,*” and “*you may stay.*”

563. Conjunctions sometimes begin sentences, even after a full period, to show a connection between sentences in the general tenor of discourse. See, as examples, the first chapter of Genesis.

564. Conjunctions are divided into two classes: *Copulative* and *Disjunctive*.

565. *Copulative* conjunctions connect things that are to be considered together. They are, *and*, *both*, *as*, *because*, *for*, *if*, *since*, *that*.

566. *And* is the principal copulative, and connects what follows as an addition to that which precedes. The others connect what follows as a condition, supposition, cause, motive, &c.

567. *Both* is an antecedent conjunction, related to *and*. When used, it precedes the first of the words or sentences connected by *and*, in order to make the connection more emphatic.

568. *Disjunctive* conjunctions connect things that are to be considered separately. The leading disjunctives are, *or*, *nor*, *either*, *neither*, *than*, *though*, *although*, *yet*, *but*, *except*, *whether*, *lest*, *unless*, *notwithstanding*, *save*, *provided*, *whereas*.

569. *Or* and *nor* are the principal disjunctives. *Or* connects words and sentences in such a way as to show that what follows is not added to, but is the alternative of, that which precedes. The other disjunctives connect what follows as a concession or doubt, or as something opposed to what goes before.

570. *Either* and *neither* are antecedent conjunctions, related to *or* and *nor* respectively. When used, they precede the first of the words or sentences connected by *or* or *nor*, to render them more emphatic. Sometimes they are transposed to the end of the sentence so as to give emphasis to the latter member; as, “Was that your business, *or mine either?*” That was not my business, *nor yours neither*=*neither my business nor yours.*

571. *Therefore* and *wherefore*, sometimes called conjunctions, are more properly adverbs (533).

PARSING.

572. A conjunction is parsed by stating the part of

speech, its class, and the words or sentences which it connects ; as, "He *and* I must go ; *but* you may stay."

And—a copulative conjunction, and connects the words *He* and *I*.

But—a disjunctive conjunction, and connects the sentences, "He and I must go," and "you may stay."

578. PRELIMINARY ORAL EXERCISE.

When we say, "John and James study," what word connects John and James ? What class of words connect words or sentences ? What part of speech is *and* ? In the sentence, "John reads and writes," what does *and* connect ? What does *and* connect in the following phrases, "A red and white rose"—"A red rose and a white rose"—"Well and truly said!" What conjunction connects the following sentences, "They are happy, because they are good" ? Here the following facts may be noticed (946, &c.) :—

1. When two nouns or pronouns are connected, they are in the same case, and in the same construction.
2. When two verbs are connected, they have the same subject ; as, "James reads and writes."
3. When two adjectives are connected, they qualify the same noun or pronoun.
4. When two adverbs are connected, they modify the same word.
5. When conjunctions connect *sentences*, they do not connect individual words in the sentence. Thus, "They are happy, *because* they are good," the conjunction does not connect *they* with *they*, nor *are* with *are*, nor *happy* with *good* ; but, "They are happy," with "they are good." So also when they connect phrases : "He spoke to *James*, and to *me*"—"Of him, and through him, and to him, are all things."

EXERCISES ON CONJUNCTIONS.

1. In the following sentences, point out the conjunctions, and state what words, or sentences, or phrases, they connect. Sometimes the order is so inverted, that the conjunctive clause stands first.

2. Parse the words in their order.

Time and tide wait for no man.—The evening and the morning were the first day.—The memory of the just is blessed, but the name of the wicked shall rot.—If thou faint in the day of adversity, thy strength is small.—Two and two make four.—George or John will go.—They will succeed because they are industrious.—Because they are industrious they will succeed. Of him, and through him, and to him, are all things.—Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.—Of making many books there is no end, and much study is a weariness to the flesh.—My son, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not.

PARSING.

574. PARSING is the resolving of a sentence into its elements or *parts of speech*.

575. Words may be parsed in two ways: *Etymologically* (576), and *Syntactically* (983).

1. *Etymological* parsing consists in stating the parts of speech to which each word in a sentence belongs, its uses and accidents, its inflection, and changes, and derivation, if derived.

2. *Syntactical* parsing adds to the above a statement of the relation in which the words stand to each other, and the rules according to which they are combined in phrases and sentences.

3. In the natural order, *Etymological parsing* should precede *Analysis*, because we can not analyze a sentence before we have learned the character of the words it contains; and *Analysis* should precede *Syntactical parsing*, because, till we know the parts and elements of a sentence, we can not understand their relations, nor intelligently combine them into one consistent whole. Still, these are all so intimately connected and blended together, that to do any one of them in the best manner, a knowledge of all is necessary. As *Etymological parsing* has to do only with the *accidents* of words, it matters not whether the words parsed are unconnected, or in sentences. But in both *Analysis* and *Syntactical parsing*, not only must the words constitute a sentence, but that also must be both *intelligible* and *understood*; for no one can either analyze or parse syntactically that which he does not understand.

ETYMOLOGICAL PARSING.

576. Words are parsed etymologically in the manner directed under each part of speech, viz.: Nouns (182)—articles (194)—adjectives (225)—pronouns of different kinds, viz., personal (253), relative (278), interrogative (286), adjective (313)—verbs (491 and 496)—adverbs (537)—prepositions (553)—interjections (560)—conjunctions (572).

577. That a pupil should be expert and accurate in this exercise, is of much importance, in order to pursue with pleasure and success the study of Syntax, and to a correct understanding of the forms and usages of speech in the English language.

578. A sentence to be parsed must be intelligible, and it is necessary for the pupil, in the first place, to *understand it*. When he understands a sentence, and also the definition of the different parts of speech given in the grammar, he will not find much difficulty in ascertaining to which of them each word belongs; that is, which of the words are "names of things" or *nouns*; which "qualify the names of things," or, "affirm anything concerning them," that is to say, which words are *adjectives*, and which are *verbs*. This method will exercise the discriminating powers of the pupil better, engage his attention much more, and, on trial, be found much more easy and certain, than that of consulting his dictionary on every occasion—a plan always laborious, often unsatisfactory, and which, instead of leading him to exercise his own powers, and depend on his own resources, will lead him to habits of slavish dependence on the authority of others.

579. The following *general principles* should be remembered, and steadily kept in view, in parsing every sentence, viz.:—

1. Every adjective qualifies or limits a noun or pronoun, expressed or understood (195, and 196).

2. The subject of a verb, that is, the person or thing *spoken of*, is always in the nominative (except when the verb is in the infinitive), and said to be the nominative to the verb (315 and 762).

3. Every verb in the indicative, potential, subjunctive, or imperative, has a nominative or subject, expressed or understood (661, 4).

4. Every verb in the active voice used transitively, and every preposition, is followed by a noun or pronoun in the *objective case*, or by an infinitive mood or a clause of a sentence equivalent to it; and every objective case, except as in (828), is governed by an active transitive verb, or preposition (661, 6).

5. The infinitive mood, for the most part, depends on, or is governed by, a verb or adjective (865).

580. MODEL OF ETYMOLOGICAL PARSING.

"The minutest plant or animal, if [it is] attentively examined, affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore the Omnipotent Hand by which it was created."*

* In parsing nouns, pronouns, and verbs, it is quite unnecessary to repeat the words *gender*, *number*, *case*, *tense*, *mood*, *voice*. Thus, "Father is a noun, masculine *gender*, in the nominative *case*, singular *number*." It is enough, and is both neater and briefer, to say, "a noun masculine, in the nominative singular." So with the verb: instead of saying, "Loves is a verb," &c., "in the present tense, indicative mood, active voice, third person, singular number," it is sufficient and better to say, "In the present indicative, active, third person singular." The conjugation of regular verbs also (485), without any detriment, may be omitted, the form of the principal parts being sufficiently ascertained when they are said to be regular (491, note). All this saves much time, and it is just as explicit as the full form often used. For the same reason, and as formerly mentioned (103), the words *proper* and *common*, as applied to nouns, may be omitted; because, whether a noun is proper or common, makes no difference in the construction of a sentence; no use is made of it, nothing depends on it. In like manner, the designation of *person*, as applied to nouns, may be omitted, except when they are of the first or second,

Previous to parsing this sentence, the pupil may be led to understand it better, and perceive its parts more distinctly, by attending to such questions as the following: What is spoken of in this sentence? How are *plant* and *animal* qualified? What is said of them thus qualified? How is *wonders* limited? What else is said of *plant* and *animal*? Whom do they oblige? What do they oblige *us* to do? How is *hand* qualified? What *hand*? &c.

581. These words may be parsed fully, thus:—

The..... DEFINITE ARTICLE, shewing that *plant* and *animal* are defined or limited.

minutest An ADJECTIVE, because it qualifies a noun, *plant*, &c.
compared by er and est, or by prefixing *more* and *most*.
superlative degree—expresses the greatest degree of minuteness compared with others.

plant..... A NOUN—the name of an object.

neuter—is without sex.

nominative, because the subject of *affords* and *oblige*.

singular—it denotes but *one*; plural, *plants*.

or A DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTION—connects *plant* and *animal* as alternates.

animal..... A NOUN—the name of an object.

neuter—considered without sex (125)

nominative singular, for reasons above:—(see *plant*).

if..... A CONJUNCTION—connects the sentence, “[*it is*] attentively examined,” as a condition, to the sentence, “*affords*,” &c.

it..... A PRONOUN—stands instead of a noun, *plant* or *animal*.

neuter—it denotes neither male nor female.

personal—its form indicates its person.

third person—it is spoken of.

singular—it denotes but one.

is examined.. A VERB—expresses an act.

transitive—expresses an act done to *plant*, &c., represented by *it*.

regular—its past tense and past participle end in *ed*.

present—expresses a present act.

indicative—used subjunctively, and expresses a condition.

passive—represents the subject as acted upon.

third person—affirms of its subject spoken of.

singular—affirms of but one.

attentively .. An ADVERB—modifies *examined*; formed from the adjective *attentive* by adding *ly*; compared by prefixing *more* and *most*.

affords..... A VERB—it expresses an act of its subject, *plant* or *animal*.
transitive—expresses what the subject does to its object
wonders.

if it be understood that they are always of the third person when not otherwise mentioned. This plan is here adopted and recommended. Still, it is expected that every teacher will adopt that method which he thinks best. In parsing, economy of time, without loss of advantage, is an object of much importance.

regular—its past tense and past participle end in *ed*.

present—expresses a present act.

indicative—declares simply.

active—represents its subject as acting.

third person—affirms of its subject spoken of.

singular—affirms of but one.

a INDEFINITE ARTICLE—showing that “*thousand wonders*” is put indefinitely as one whole, that is, *one thousand*.

thousand AN ADJECTIVE—qualifies *wonders*.

numeral—denotes number.

cardinal—denotes how many; not compared.

wonders A NOUN—the name of an object.

neuter—without sex.

objective—the object of *affords*.

plural—denotes more than one.

and COPULATIVE CONJUNCTION—connects the succeeding sentence as an addition to the preceding.

obliges Same as *affords*.

us A PERSONAL PRONOUN—the substitute of the speaker and others, and consequently first person.

masculine or *feminine*—may denote males or females.

objective—the object of *obliges*.

plural—denotes more than one.

to admire ... A VERB—expresses an act.

transitive—has an object, *hund*.

regular—its past tense and past participle end in *ed*.

present—expresses an act present at the time referred to in the preceding verb, *obliges*.

infinitive—without limitation of person or number.

active—represents the subject referred to (395) as acting. It is the attribute of *us*, or has *us* for its subject.

and COPULATIVE CONJUNCTION—connects *to adore* as an addition to *to admire*.

adore Same as *admire*, without the sign (880).

that DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVE PRONOUN—used to point out definitely the word *hand*.

Omnipotent.. An ADJECTIVE—qualifies *hand*; not compared because it does not admit of increase.

hand A NOUN—same as *wonders*, except—

singular—denotes one, and is the object of *admire* and *adore*.

by A PREPOSITION—shows the relation between *was created* and *which*.

which RELATIVE PRONOUN—*neuter*, in the objective singular, refers to *hand* as its antecedent, and is governed by *by*.

singular—means but one.

it A PERSONAL PRONOUN—stands for *plant* or *animal*, same as before.

was created. A VERB—expresses an act done by *hand*, represented by *which*.

transitive—expresses an act done by one person or thing to another.

regular—its past tense and past participle end in *ed*.

past—expresses an act now past. .

indicative—declares simply.

passive—represents its subject as acted upon.

third person—its subject is spoken of.

singular—affirms of one.

ABBREVIATED MODEL.

582. The length of time necessary to parse even a few words in this way, renders it impracticable to do it often, though occasionally it may be profitable. The following brief method will answer every purpose:—

The..... Definite article, belonging to *plant* and *animal*, and showing them to be limited.

minutest.... Adjective, superlative degree, qualifying *plant*, &c.

plant A noun, neuter, in the nominative singular, subject of *affords*.
or A disjunctive conjunction, connecting *plant* and *animal* as alternates.

animal..... A noun, neuter, in the nominative singular, subject of *affords*.

if..... A conjunction, connecting the sentences.

it Third personal pronoun, neuter, in the nominative singular, standing for *plant* or *animal*, and subject of *is examined*.

is examined. A verb transitive, regular, in the present indicative, active, expressing what is done to its subject *it*, used for *plant* or *animal*.

attentively .. An adverb, modifying *examined*; compared by *more* and *most*.

affords A verb transitive, regular, in the present indicative, active, third person singular, and affirms of *plant* or *animal*.

a Indefinite article, showing *thousand wonders* to be indefinite.

thousand.... A numeral adjective, used to qualify *wonders*.

wonders..... A noun, neuter, in the objective plural, object of *affords*.

and A copulative conjunction; connects the predicates *affords*, &c., and *obliges*.

obliges..... A verb transitive, regular, in the present indicative active, third person singular, and affirms of *plant* or *animal*.

us First personal pronoun, masculine or feminine, in the objective plural, object of *obliges*, and subject of *to admire*, &c.

to admire ... A verb transitive, regular, in the present infinitive, active, attribute of *us*, or object of *obliges*.

and... A copulative conjunction; connects *to admire* and *to adore*.

to adore ... A verb transitive, regular, in the present infinitive, active, attribute of *us*, or object of *obliges*.

- that*..... Demonstrative adjective pronoun, definitely pointing out *hand*.
Omnipotent. An adjective, qualifying *hand*; not compared.
hand..... A noun, neuter, in the objective singular, object of *adore*.
by..... A preposition, which shows the relation between *was created* and *which*.
which..... A relative pronoun, related to *hand* as its antecedent, objective, and governed by *by*.
it..... Third personal pronoun, same as before; subject of *was created*.
was created.. A verb transitive, regular, in the past indicative, passive, third person singular, and affirms of *it*.
-

583. EXERCISES IN PARSING.

1. *Two or more adjectives in succession, either with or without a conjunction, qualify the same word; as,*

1. A wise and faithful servant will always study his master's interest.
2. A dismal, dense, and portentous cloud overhangs the city.
3. A steady, sweet, and cheerful temper affords great delight to its possessor.
4. He has bought a fine new coat.

2. *When an adjective precedes two nouns, it generally qualifies them both; as,*

1. They waited for a fit time and place.
2. I am delighted with the sight of green woods and fields.
3. He displayed great prudence and moderation.
4. He was a man of great wisdom and moderation.

3. *When an adjective comes after a verb intransitive, it generally qualifies the nominative of that verb; as,*

1. John is wise.
2. They were temperate.
3. The sky is very clear.
4. These rivers are deep and rapid.
5. The apples will soon be ripe.
6. We have been attentive to our lessons.
7. These mountains are very high.

4. *Whatever words the verb "to be" serves to unite, referring to the same thing, must be of the same case; as,*

1. Alexander is a student.
2. Mary is a beautiful painter.
3. Hope is the balm of life.
4. Content is a great blessing, envy a great curse.
5. Knowledge is power.
6. His meat was locusts and wild honey.
7. He was the life of the company.

NOTE.—It is necessary to the application of this rule, that the words connected refer to the same thing. This connection is often made by other words than the verb "to be" (605 or 797).

5. *Nouns and pronouns, placed together for the sake of emphasis, or explanation, and denoting the same object, are said to be in apposition, and always agree in case; as,*

1. *Alexander the coppersmith*, was not a friend to the *Apostle Paul*.
2. Hope, the balm of life, is our greatest friend.
3. Thomson, the author of “The Seasons,” is a delightful poet.
4. Temperance, the best preserver of health, should be the study of all men.

NOTE.—In parsing such sentences as those above, a relative and a verb may be inserted between the words in apposition. *Myself, thyself, himself, &c.* often stand at a considerable distance from the words with which they agree; as,

5. *Thomas despatched the letter himself*. 6. They gathered the flowers in the garden themselves.
7. Ann saw the transaction herself, and could not be mistaken.

6. *Myself, thyself, himself, &c., often form the objectives after active-transitive verbs, of which the words they represent are the subjects or nominatives. They are in such cases generally called Reflexive pronouns (249); as,*

1. I hurt *myself*.
2. He wronged *himself*, to oblige us.
3. They will support themselves by their industry.
4. She endeavoured to show herself off to advantage.
5. We must confine ourselves more to our studies.
6. They hurt themselves by their great anxiety.

7. *Adjectives taken as nouns, and used in reference to persons, are generally of the plural number (201); as,*

1. The valiant never taste of death but once.
2. The virtuous are generally the most happy.
3. The diligent make most improvement.
4. The sincere are always esteemed.
5. The inquisitive are generally talkative.
6. The dissipated are much to be pitied.

8. *Nouns and pronouns, taken in the same connection, must be of the same case; as,*

1. The master taught *him* and *me* to write.
2. He and she were school-fellows.
3. My brother and he are tolerable grammarians.
4. He gave the book to John and Thomas.
5. I lent my knife and pencil to one of the scholars.

9. *A relative generally precedes the verb that governs it; as,*

1. He is a friend *whom* I greatly respect.
2. They whom luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of life.
3. The books which I bought yesterday, I have not yet received.
4. The trees which he planted in the spring have all died.

10. *When both a relative and its antecedent have each a verb belonging to it, the relative is commonly the nominative to the first verb, and the antecedent to the second; as,*

1. He who acts wisely DESERVES praise.
2. He who is a stranger to industry may possess, but he cannot enjoy.
3. They who are born in high stations are not always the most happy.
4. The man who is faithfully attached to religion may be relied on with confidence.

11. *The relative what in itself represents but one case—the nominative or objective; but it implies a reference to a general antecedent omitted, to which belongs the other case required by the construction. When this antecedent is expressed, which must be used instead of what* (266).

1. This is precisely *what* was necessary. 2. What can not be prevented must be endured. 3. We must not delay till to-morrow what ought to be done to-day. 4. Choose what is most fit; custom will make it the most agreeable. 5. Foolish men are more apt to consider what they have lost, than what they possess. 6. What he gained by diligence, he squandered by extravagance.

12. *Whoever and whosoever are equivalent to a simple relative, and a general or indefinite antecedent, and in parsing may be so resolved; thus, whoever = any one who. The same is the case with whatever and whatsoever; whatever = everything which; as,*

1. *Whoever told such a story, must have been misinformed.* 2. Whoever is not content in poverty, would not be perfectly happy in the midst of plenty. 3. Whoever passes his time in idleness, can make but little improvement. 4. Whatever gives pain to others, deserves not the name of pleasure. 5. Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.

NOTE.—Whatever is most frequently used as what sometimes is (277) simply to qualify a noun? as,

6. Aspire at perfection, in *whatever state* of life you may be placed. 7. I forget *what words* he uttered. 8. By *what means* shall we obtain wisdom? 9. By *whatever arts* we may attract attention, we can secure esteem only by amiable dispositions.

13. *Though participles never directly declare, yet they always imply something either done or doing; and are used in reference to some noun or pronoun; as,*

1. *Admired and applauded, he became vain.* 2. Having finished our lessons, we went to play. 3. Proceeding on his journey, he was seized with a dangerous malady. 4. Being engaged at the time of my call, he had not a moment to spend with me.

14. *The past participle of a few intransitive verbs is sometimes joined to the verb “to be,” which gives such verbs a passive appearance (374); as,*

1. I am come, in compliance with your desire. 2. If such maxims and practices prevail, what has become of decency and virtue? The old house is fallen down. 4. John is gone to London.

15. *Intransitive verbs are often followed by prepositions, making what are sometimes called compound transitive verbs. The verb and preposition may, in such cases, be parsed either together or separately in the active voice. In the passive voice, they must be parsed together; as,*

1. He laughed at such folly. 2. They smiled upon us in such a way as to inspire courage. 3. He struck at his friend with great violence. 4. He was much laughed at for such conduct.

16. *A noun or pronoun is often used with a participle, without being connected in grammatical construction with any other words of the sentence. It is then called the nominative absolute, or independent; as,*

1. The father being dead, the whole estate came into the hands of the eldest son. 2. He destroyed, or won to what may work his utter loss, all this will soon follow. 3. Whose gray top shall tremble, he descending.

17. *To the sign of the infinitive, is omitted after the verbs bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, and let; and sometimes after perceive, behold, observe, have, know, &c., in the active voice, but is retained after the same verbs in the passive; as,*

1. Let me look at your portrait. 2. He bade me go with him. 3. I heard him assert the opinion. 4. I like to see you behave so well. 5. Let him apply to his books, and then he will make improvement. 6. Let us make all the haste in our power. 7. I saw him ride past at great speed. 8. I have observed some satirists use the term.

18. *Verbs connected by conjunctions, are usually in the same mood and tense, but in the compound tenses, the sign is often used with the first only, and understood with the rest; as,*

1. He can neither read nor write. 2. He shall no longer tease and vex me as he has done. 3. He commanded them that they should not depart from Jerusalem, but wait for the promise of the father. 4. His diligence should have been commended and rewarded.

19. *Nouns and pronouns are often governed by a preposition understood; and nouns denoting time, value, weight, or measure, are used to restrict verbs or adjectives, without a governing word (828); as,*

1. He gave [to] me a full account of the whole affair. 2. Will you lend me your knife. 3. It is not time yet to go home. 4. He returned home at a very inconvenient season. 5. He traveled on foot, last summer, as far as London. 6. He was in Paris last month.

20. *The conjunctions than and as, implying comparison, have the same case after them as before them; and the latter case has the same construction as the former; as,*

1. He has more books than my brother (has). 2. Mary is not so handsome as her sister (is). 3. They respect him more than (they respect) us. 4. James is not so diligent as Thomas. 5. They are much greater gainers than I, by this unexpected event.

21. *The class of words, or parts of speech to which a word belongs, depends often on its application; as,*

1. Calm was the day and the scene delightful. 2. We may expect a

calm after a storm. 3. To prevent passion is easier than to calm it. 4. Better is a little with content, than a great deal with anxiety. 5. The gay and dissolute think little of the miseries which are stealing softly after them. 6. A little attention will rectify some errors. 7. Though he is out of danger, he is still afraid. 8. He labored to still the tumult. 9. Still waters are commonly deepest. 10. Damp air is unwholesome. 11. Guilt often casts a damp over our sprightliest hours. 12. Soft bodies damp the sound much more than hard ones.

22. *Do, have, and be, are principal verbs when used by themselves, but auxiliaries when connected with other verbs; as,*

1. He *does* all in his power to gain esteem. 2. He did his utmost to please his friend. 3. We must do nothing that will sully our reputation. 4. She has a strong claim to our respect. 5. The man who has no sense of religion is little to be trusted. 6. He who does the most good has the most pleasure. 7. He is at home. 8. They are all well there.

23. *An infinitive, a participle used as a noun, or a member of a sentence, which may be called a substantive phrase, is often the nominative to a verb, or the objective after an active transitive verb or preposition (762 and 802); as,*

1. *Nominative.*—1. To study hard is the best way to improve. 2. To endure misfortune with resignation is the characteristic of a great mind. 3. To advise the ignorant, relieve the needy, and comfort the distressed, are duties incumbent on all. 4. John's being from home occasioned the delay. 5. His having neglected opportunities of improvement, was the cause of his disgrace.

2. *Objective.*—1. He that knows how to do good and does it not, is without excuse. 2. He will regret his having neglected opportunities of improvement when it may be too late. 3. He declared that nothing could give him greater pleasure. 4. Of making many books there is no end. 5. You will never repent of having done your duty.

24. *When a substantive phrase (583, 23) is governed by a verb or preposition, this regimen does not affect the case of individual nouns or pronouns in that phrase, but leaves them subject to the influence of other words within the phrase itself.*

If the infinitive or participle of the verb "to be," or of a passive verb of naming, &c., is used in this way without a definite subject, the substantive which follows it as a predicate is neither the subject of a verb nor is under the regimen of any word; thus, "His *being* an expert *dancer* does not entitle him to our regard." The phrase, "*being an expert dancer*," is the subject of the verb, "*does entitle*," but the word "*dancer*," in that

phrase, is neither the subject of any verb, nor governed by any word in the sentence. Of this kind are all such expressions as the following: "It is an honor *to be the author* of such a work."—"To be surety for a stranger is dangerous."—"The atrocious crime of *being a young man*, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor deny."—*Pitt*. In all such examples, whether the phrase be the subject of a verb, or the object of an active-transitive verb or preposition, the noun or pronoun following the verb "to be," or a passive verb, is properly in the predicate-nominative (651 and 799). The words may be parsed separately, or the whole phrase may be parsed as one word.

1. He had the honor of being a director for life.
2. By being a diligent student, he soon acquired eminence in his profession.
3. Many benefits result to men from being wise and temperate (men).

E 25. It often refers to persons, or to an infinitive coming after: as,

1. *It is John* that is to blame.
2. *It was I* that wrote the letter.
3. *It is the duty of all* to improve.
4. *It is the business of every man* to prepare for death.
5. *It was reserved for Newton* to discover the law of gravitation.
6. *It is easy to form* good resolutions but difficult to put them in practice.
7. *It is incumbent on the young* to love and honor their parents.

26. Words, especially in poetry, are often much transposed; as,

1. Great is Diana of the Ephesians.
2. On yourself depend for aid.
3. Happy the man who puts his trust in his Maker.
4. Of night the gloom was dark and dense.
5. Or where the gorgeous east, with richest hand, Showers on her kings barbaric, pearls and gold.
6. No hive hast thou of hoarded sweets.
7. A transient calm the happy scenes bestow.

As additional exercises in parsing, the little work entitled "PROGRESSIVE EXERCISES in Analysis and Parsing" may now be used, or sentences from any plain, simple, and accurate composition, such as are contained in the reading lessons, may be selected. The exercises under the head of "ANALYSIS," page 12, &c., may be used for the same purpose.

P A R T I I I.

S Y N T A X.

584. SYNTAX is that part of grammar which treats of the proper arrangement and connection of words in a sentence.

DEFINITIONS.

585. A SENTENCE is such an assemblage of words as contains an affirmation, and makes complete sense; as, "*Man is mortal*" (660).

586. A PHRASE is two or more words rightly put together, but not containing an affirmation or making complete sense; as, "*In truth*"—"In a word"—"*To say the least*."

587. A SUBSTANTIVE PHRASE is one which, in the construction of a sentence, is equivalent to a noun or substantive, being 1. The subject of a verb; as, "*To do good* is to be happy;" 2. The object of a transitive verb (320, 1); as, "*To do good* forget not." 3. The object of a preposition (540); as, "*By pursuing this course* he succeeded." 4. The attribute after a copulative verb (604); as, "*He appears to be doing well.*"

588. An ADJUNCT is a preposition with its regimen (541) as related to its principal or antecedent term; as, "*The waters of Jordan*"—"They came to *Jordan*."

589. Sentences are of different kinds, according to the nature of the thought intended to be expressed. They are—

1. *Declaratory*, or such as declare a thing; as, "*God is love.*"
2. *Interrogatory*, or such as ask a question; as, "*Lovest thou me?*"
3. *Imperative*, or such as express a command; as, "*Lazarus come forth.*"
4. *Exclamatory*, or such as contain an exclamation; as, "*Behold how he loved him.*"

590. All sentences are either *simple* or *compound*. See 635. NOTE.

591. A *simple* sentence contains only a single affirmation; as, "*Life is short.*"

592. A *compound* sentence consists of two or more simple sentences connected together; as, "*Life, which is short, should be well improved.*"

593. The simple sentences which make up a compound sentence, are called **CLAUSES OR MEMBERS** (635, 636).

I. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

The subject of Analysis here introduced will be found to be an interesting and profitable exercise for pupils, and an important preparation for the CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES (660, &c.). After the pupil has gone through this portion and become tolerably familiar with it, the Analysis of two or three sentences daily will be an amusement rather than a task. He should begin of course with sentences of the simplest character, gradually advancing to those that are more complex. For this purpose, sentences may be selected from any "Reading book" of easy lessons, or from "Parsing Exercises" (583), or from the little work entitled "PROGRESSIVE EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS AND PARSING," adapted to this Grammar. At first, the teacher may direct the attention of the pupil orally to the order of Analysis by such questions as the following: What is a sentence?—Is this sentence [*"God is good"*] simple or compound?—Why simple?—What are the parts of a simple sentence (593)?—What is the subject of a sentence (595)?—Of whom does this sentence affirm?—Then, what word is the subject of this sentence?—What is the predicate of a sentence (600)?—What is here affirmed of the subject "God"?—Then what is the predicate in this sentence?—Of how many parts does the predicate consist (601)?—What are they?—In this predicate, what word is the attribute?—What, the copula? What is a verb called when used as a copula only (604)?—What are the verbs commonly used as copulatives (605)? Having, in some such way as this, conducted the analysis of simple sentences till the pupil has become familiar with it, the same, or a similar process may be pursued with sentences in which the subject or the predicate is modified; and so with sentences having a compound subject (613), or a compound predicate (627); and then proceed to compound sentences (635), and to abridged propositions (648). After a few trials of this kind, the pupil will be able to analyze sentences without the aid of questions, and do it more rapidly and satisfactorily; thus: "*God is good.*" This is a simple declaratory sentence; it affirms of "God" that he "*is good*"; therefore, "God" is the subject; and "*is good*," the predicate. In this predicate, "*good*" is the attribute, and "*is*," the copula; it is therefore here a copulative verb (604).

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

594. A SIMPLE sentence or proposition consists of two parts—the *subject*, and the *predicate*.

595. The *subject* is that of which something is affirmed; as, *Snow is white*.—*Time flies*.

596. The subject of a verb or sentence is commonly a *noun* or a *pronoun*; as, "*God is good; he does good.*" Also, it may be an *infinitive*,

with (597) or without a subject (394), a *participial noun* (462), a *substantive phrase* (587), or a *clause of a sentence* (593); as, "To lie is base."—"For us to lie is base."—"Lying is base."—"To do wrong knowingly is base."—"That men should lie is base" (646).

597. When the infinitive with a subject in the objective case (872), is used as the subject of a proposition, it is introduced by the particle *for*; as, "For us to lie is base."

598. When a clause of a sentence, consisting of a finite verb (761) and its subject, is used as the subject of a proposition, it is introduced by the conjunction *that*; as, "That men should lie is base."

599. When the infinitive or the clause of a sentence as the subject follows the verb, the pronoun *it* precedes it, referring to the subject (246, 2, 4); as, "It is base that men should lie."—"It is base to lie."—"It is base for us to lie."

600. The *predicate* is that which is affirmed of the subject; as, "Truth is mighty."—"God reigns."

Note 1.—The word "*affirm*" here is to be understood as applying to all kinds of sentences—*declaratory*, whether affirmative or negative, *interrogatory*, *imperative*, or *exclamatory* (589).

Note 2.—The name of a person or thing addressed forms no part of the sentence; as, "Lazarus, come forth."

601. The predicate properly consists of two parts—the *attribute* affirmed of the subject, and the *copula* by which the affirmation is made.

Thus, in the sentence, "God is love," "God" is the subject, and "is love" is the predicate, in which "love" is the attribute, and "is" the copula.

602. The attribute and copula are often expressed by one word, which, in that case must always be a verb; as, "The fire *burns*."—"The fire *is burning*."

603. The predicate may be a *noun* or *pronoun*, an *adjective*, sometimes a *preposition with its case*, or an *adverb*—also an *infinitive*, or *clause of a sentence*, connected with the subject by a copula, see examples (621 and 622); or it may be a *verb*, which includes in itself both attribute and copula (602).

604. When a verb does not complete the predicate, but is used as a copula only, it is called a *copulative verb*; as, "Home *is sweet*:" When it includes both attribute and copula, it is called an *attributive verb*; as, "Time *flies*."

605. The copulative verbs are such as *to be*, *to become*, *to seem*, *to appear*, and the passives of *deem*, *style*, *call*, *name*, *consider*, &c.

606. The verbs *to be*, *to appear*, are sometimes also used as attributives; as, "There *are lions in Africa*."—"Lions *are in Africa*."—"The stars *appear*." When so used, and the subject is placed after the verb, the sentence is introduced by the word *there* (529), as in the first example.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following, point out which are *sentences*, and why—which are *phrases*, and why.

2. In the sentences, what is the *subject*, and why?—What is the *predicate*, and why. Also which predicates are made by *copulative verbs*, and which, by *attributives*. In both, what is the *attribute*?

Snow is white.—Ice is cold.—Birds fly.—Roses blossom.—The tree is tall.—The fields are green.—Grass grows.—To say nothing.—Man is mortal.—God is immortal.—Home is sweet.—Sweet is home.—Who is Paul?—Has he come?—Will James go?—Are you tired?—At all events.—To be sure.

3. Make sentences of which one of the following words shall be the subject, i. e. affirm something respecting each of them.

Trees, birds, horses, a sparrow, the stone, the thunder, the wind, the clouds, time, he.

4. Analyze each of the sentences thus made, as directed above, No. 2.

THE SUBJECT.

607. I. The subject of a proposition is either *grammatical* or *logical*.

608. The *grammatical subject* is the person or thing spoken of, unlimited by other words; as, "Knowledge is power."

609. The *logical subject* is the person or thing spoken of, together with all the words or phrases by which it is limited or defined: thus.

In the sentence, "Every man at his best state is vanity," the grammatical subject is "*man*"; the logical is, "*Every man at his best state*."

610. When the grammatical subject has no limiting words connected with it, then the grammatical and the logical subject are the same; as, "*God is good*."

611. II. The subject of a proposition is either *simple* or *compound*.

612. A *simple subject* consists of one subject of thought (596); as, "*Time is money*."

613. A compound subject consists of two or more simple subjects, to which belongs but one predicate; as, "*James and John are brothers*."—"You and I are friends."—"Two and three are five."—"Time and tide wait for no man."*

* The subject is here considered as compound, whether the predicate can be affirmed of each simple subject or not. Thus, we can say, "Time waits for no man, and tide waits for no man;" but we can not say, "Two are five, and three are five." Still the preceding examples—"Time and tide," and "two and three"—are equally considered as compound subjects, because they consist each of more than one subject.

EXERCISES.

I. 1. In each of the following sentences, point out the *grammatical subject*—the *logical*.

The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.—Wisdom's ways are pleasantness: all her paths are peace.—The love of money is the root of all evil.—Human knowledge is progressive.—Righteousness exalteth a nation.

II. 1. In each of the following sentences, point out the *subject*,—the *predicate*.

2. State whether the subjects are *simple* or *compound*; *limited* or *unlimited*. In each, point out the *grammatical subject*—the *logical subject*.

Paul and Silas sang praises to God.—Peter and John went up into the temple.—Gold and silver are precious metals.—Locusts and wild honey were his food.—Socrates and Plato were Grecian philosophers.—In unity consist the welfare and security of society.—Summer and winter shall not cease.—Three and three are six.—John and Jane are a handsome couple.

3. Write predicates to the following compound subjects:—

James and John.—He and she.—You and I.—The rich and the poor.—Virtue and vice.—Heat and cold.—France and Mexico.—The sun and the moon.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE SUBJECT.

614. A grammatical subject, being a noun, may be modified, limited, or described, in various ways; as,

1. By a noun in apposition—i. e., a noun added in the same case for the sake of explanation (668); as, “Milton the poet was blind.”
2. By a noun in the possessive case; as, “Aaron’s rod budded.”
3. By an adjunct (541); as, “The works of Nature are beautiful.”
4. By an adjective word (that is, an article,* adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle); as, “The hour has arrived.”—“A good name is better than riches.”—“Your time is precious.”—“Lost time can not be recovered.”
5. By a relative and its clause; as, “He who does no good, does harm.”
6. By an infinitive mood; as, “A desire to learn is praiseworthy.”
7. By a clause of a sentence (593); as, “The fact that he was a scholar was manifest.”
8. Each grammatical subject may have several modifications; as, “Several stars of less magnitude, which we had not observed before, now appeared.”

* Though, for the reason assigned (192), the article is not properly a limiting word, yet as it shows that the word is limited or modified in some way, it is here ranked among the modifiers.

615. A grammatical subject, being a pronoun, is usually modified by a noun in apposition ; as, “*I, Paul, would have come :*” or by a relative clause as in No. 5 above.

Note.—Pronouns of the third person, and also relative pronouns, refer to their antecedents together with their modifications; as, “*Rebuke a wise man, and he will love thee.*”

616. When the grammatical subject is an infinitive, or a participle used as a noun, it may be modified like the verb in the predicate (630).

EXERCISES.

In the following propositions, point out the *grammatical* subject—the *logical*—and state how the grammatical subject is modified :—

All men are not wise.—Tall oaks from little acorns grow.—Milton’s “*Paradise Lost*” is a work of great merit.—Wisdom’s ways are pleasantness.—The love of money is the root of all evil.—Evil communications corrupt good manners.—The disposition to do good should be cherished.—The walls of Babylon were fifteen miles long.—A desire to excel will stimulate to exertion.—The effort to succeed will be crowned with success.—All things come alike to all.

Write sentences which have the subject modified by a noun in apposition—or a noun in the possessive case—or by an adjunct—or by an adjective word—or by an infinitive mood—or by a clause of a sentence.

MODIFICATION OF MODIFYING WORDS.

617. Modifying or limiting words may themselves be modified :—

1. A noun modifying another, may itself be modified in all the ways in which a noun as a grammatical subject is modified (614).
2. An adjective qualifying a noun may itself be modified :—
 1. By an adjunct ; as, “*Be not weary in well-doing.*”
 2. By an adverb ; as, “*Truly virtuous men often endure reproach.*”
 3. By an infinitive ; as, “*Be swift to hear, and slow to speak.*”
3. Again, an adverb may be modified :—
 1. By an adjunct ; as, “*Agreeably to Nature.*”
 2. By another adverb ; as, “*Yours very sincerely.*”

618. A modified grammatical subject, regarded as a complex idea, may itself be modified; as, *The old black horse is dead.*—The FIRST two lines are good, the LAST two are bad. Here *old, first, last*,—each modifying subjects already modified, viz., *black horse, two lines, two (lines)*.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, by what words are the modifying nouns modified ?—the adjectives ?—the adverbs ?

Solomon, the son of David, built the temple at Jerusalem.—Josephus, the Jewish historian, relates the destruction of the temple.—That picture is a tolerably good copy of the original.—Pride, that never failing vice of fools, is not easily defined.—The author of Junius's letters is still unknown.—Truly great men are far above worldly pride.

2. In the following sentences, point out the subject and the predicate. In modified subjects, distinguish the *grammatical* and *logical* (608, 609).

To be good is to be happy.—To create creatures liable to wants, is to render them susceptible of enjoyment.—To hear patiently, and to answer precisely, are the great perfections of conversation.—To speak the truth is but a small part of our duty.—It is a difficult thing to be idle (599).—It is a wise provision of Providence that inferior animals have not the gift of speech.—It is not intended that any individual should possess all advantages.—That any individual should possess all advantages is not intended.

THE PREDICATE.

619. I. The *predicate*, like the *subject* (607), is either *grammatical* or *logical*.

620. The *grammatical predicate* consists of the *attribute* and *copula* (601), not modified by other words.

621. The *attribute*, which, together with the *copula*, forms the *predicate*, may be expressed by a noun or pronoun, an adjective, a participle, a preposition with its regimen, and sometimes an adverb; as, "James is a *scholar*"—"James is *he*"—"James is *diligent*"—"James is *learned*"—"James is *in health*"—"John is not *so*."

622. The *attribute* is also expressed by an infinitive, or a dependent clause: as, "To obey is *to enjoy*."—"The day is *to be celebrated*."—"The order is, *that we must go*."

623. The *logical predicate* is the *grammatical*, with all the words or phrases that modify it. Thus—

"Nero was cruel to his subjects."—"Was cruel" is the *grammatical*, and "was cruel to his subjects," the *logical predicate*. Again: "The Greeks took Troy by stratagem."—"Took" is the *grammatical*, and "took Troy by stratagem" is the *logical predicate*.

624. When the *grammatical predicate* has no modifying terms connected with it, the *grammatical* and the *logical predicate* are the same; as, "Life is short."—"The fire burns."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, name the *subject* and *predicate*. In each, tell what is the *grammatical predicate*, and what is the *logical predicate*:

Time flies.—The summer is past.—The fields are covered with grain.—Great is truth.—Columbus discovered America.—America was discovered by Columbus.—A free press is the beginning of a free government.—All governments should be founded on love.—It is religion that gives liberty to the world.

625.—II. The predicate, like the subject, is either *simple* or *compound* (611).

626. A *simple* predicate ascribes to its subject but one attribute; as, “Life is *short*.”—“Time *flies*.”

627. A *compound* predicate consists of two or more simple predicates affirmed of one subject; as, “Caesar *came*, and *saw*, and *conquered*.”—“Truth is *great* and will *prevail*.”

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, name the subject and predicate. State whether the predicate is *simple* or *compound*. Distinguish the *grammatical* and *logical* :—

Man is mortal.—Wisdom is the principal thing.—God is good and merciful.—Honesty is praised and neglected.—The heart is the best and the worst part of man.—The use of travel is to widen the sphere of observation, and to enable us to examine and judge of things for ourselves.—Avarice is a mean and cowardly vice.—Talent is strength and subtlety of mind.—Genius is mental inspiration and delicacy of feeling.—Talent is the lion and the serpent—genius is the eagle and the dove.

MODIFICATIONS OF THE PREDICATE.

628. A grammatical predicate may be modified or limited in different ways.

629. When the attribute (601) in the grammatical predicate is a noun, it is modified—

1. By a noun or pronoun, limiting or describing the attribute; as, “He is John *the Baptist*.”—“He is *my friend*.”—“He is *my father's friend*.”
2. By an adjective or participle, limiting the attribute; as, “Solomon was a *wise king*.”—“It is a bird *singing*.”

630. When the grammatical predicate is an attributive verb (604), it is modified—

1. By a noun or pronoun in the objective case, as the object of the attributive verb; as, “John reads *Homer*,”—“I have heard *him*.”
2. By an adverb; as, “John reads *well*.”
3. By an adjunct (541); as, “They live *in London*.”
4. By an infinitive; as, “Boys love *to play*.”
5. By a dependent clause; as, “Plato taught that *the soul is immortal*.”

631. An infinitive or participle may be modified in all respects as the verb in the predicate (630).

632. A modifying clause, if a dependent proposition, may be modified in both its subject and predicate as other propositions.

633. All other modifying words may themselves be modified, as similar words are when modifying the subject (614).

634. Several modifications are sometimes connected with the same predicate.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, name the *subject* and *predicate*—distinguish the *grammatical* and the *logical* predicate—show in what way the grammatical predicate is modified in the logical.

According to some ancient philosophers, the sun quenches his flames in the ocean.—Sincerity and truth form the basis of every virtue.—The coach will leave the city in the morning at sunrise.—The Spartan youth were accustomed to go barefoot.—The atrocious crime of being a young man I shall attempt neither to palliate nor deny.—Trusting in God implies a belief in him:—His pretence was, that the storm prevented his attendance.—His intention was to destroy the fleet.—Time flies rapidly.—I confess that I am in fault.—William has determined to go.—I wish that he may succeed in his enterprise.—They said, “Thou hast saved our lives.”

In the preceding exercises, show in which sentences, and by what words, the *modifiers* of the predicate are themselves modified—also, in which the predicate has more than one modifier.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

635. A COMPOUND sentence consists of two or more simple sentences or propositions (592) connected together; as, “If time is money, wasting it must be prodigality.”*

636. The propositions which make up a compound sentence are called *members* or *clauses*. In the preceding compound sentence, the members are, “Time is money,” and, “wasting it must be prodigality.”

* Some grammarians divide sentences into *simple*, *complex*, and *compound*. According to this division complex sentences are those which have one or more of their members *dependent* or *subordinate*; and compound sentences are those whose members are all *independent* or *coordinate*. The classification seems to be defective in logical accuracy inasmuch as every *complex* sentence is, in one view at least (646), also *compound*, and is of course included under that head. The division in the text is believed to be more simple and accurate than the threefold division here proposed.

INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

637. The clauses of a compound sentence are either *independent* or *dependent*; sometimes called *co-ordinate* and *subordinate*.

638. An *independent* clause is one that makes complete sense by itself.

639. A *dependent* clause is one that makes complete sense only in connection with another clause.

Thus, “We left when the sun set;” “We left,” is an independent clause; it makes sense by itself; “when the sun set,” is a dependent clause; it does not make complete sense unless joined with the other clause.

640. The dependent clause may often stand first; as, “When the sun set, we left.”

641. All the clauses of a sentence may be independent; *one* of them always *must* be independent.

642. The clause on which another depends is called the *leading* clause; its subject, the *leading* subject; and its predicate, the *leading* predicate. But this leading clause itself may be dependent on another, which is a leading clause to it.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, state which are *simple* and which are *compound*. In the compound sentences, point out the members or clauses:—

Ignorance moves our pity, and that modifies our aversion.—If we have not always time to read, we have always time to reflect.—The poor is hated even of his own neighbour, but the rich hath many friends.—The eyes of the Lord are in every place beholding the evil and the good.—Righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to any people.—Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a fall.—Death and life are in the power of the tongue.—Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.—The slothful man saith, “There is a lion in the way.”—When the righteous are in authority, the people rejoice.

In the preceding simple sentences and members, point out the *subject* and *predicate*, with their respective modifications—state what clauses are *independent* and what *dependent*.

CONNECTION OF CLAUSES.

643. Clauses of the *same* kind, that is, independent or dependent, are connected by such conjunctions *and*, *or*, *nor*, *but*, *yet*, and the like; as, “The harvest is past, the summer is ended, and we are not saved.”

644. In such sentences, the connective is often omitted, and generally, when the sentence consists of more than two members, it is omitted in all except the last, as in the above example (643).

645. The members of a compound sentence, containing one or more dependent clauses, are usually connected by relatives, conjunctions, or conjunctive adverbs (534); thus,

Relative—"That *which can not be cured* must be endured."

Conjunction—"The miser lives poor, *that he may die rich*."

Conjunctive Adverb—"We shall go *when* the cars go."

In the first sentence, the *relative* not only stands as the subject of "*can not be cured*," but also connects its clause with the leading clause; *that* connects the clauses in the second example, and *when* in the third.

646. When a clause connected by *that* can be regarded either as the *subject* or the *object* of the verb in the leading clause, it is in construction equivalent to a substantive, and the whole may be regarded as a simple sentence, though in a form really compound. Thus, in the sentence, "*That men should lie is base*," there are two clauses connected by *that*, constituting, of course, a compound sentence, and yet the dependent clause, "*That men should lie*," is really the subject of *is*, and equivalent to a noun. Thus viewed, the whole may be regarded as a simple sentence. So also, when the dependent clause is the *object* of the leading verb; as, "*I said that ye are gods*;" and also when either subject or predicate is modified by a relative clause.

647. The connecting word is sometimes omitted; as, "This is the book I lost; I suppose you found it;" for, "This is the book *which* I lost; I suppose *that* you found it."

EXERCISES.

In the following compound sentences, state which contain only independent clauses, and which contain dependent ones—point out the dependent clauses, and show on what leading clauses they depend—name the connecting words—state which may also be regarded as simple sentences (646).

The weather was fine and the roads were excellent, but we were unfortunate in our companions.—It is said that the Atlantic is three thousand miles broad.—While the bridegroom tarried they all slumbered.—As [is] a bird that wandereth from her nest, so is a man that wandereth from his place.—Beauty attracts attention, as honor [attracts] applause.—Talent is environed with many perils, and beauty [is environed] with many weaknesses.—If we aim at nothing, we shall certainly achieve nothing.—Time is ever advancing, but leaves behind it the traces of its flight.—This we know, that our future depends on our present.—Books which save the trouble of thinking are in great demand.—After the new world had been discovered, Ferdinand made a decree that no lawyers should

embark thither.—That is best which is most rational.—When I was a child, I thought as a child ; but when I became a man I put away childish things.—I will come again and receive you to myself, that where I am there ye may be also.

In the following sentences, what connecting words are omitted ?

Pay me that thou owest.—It is said he can not pay his debts.—There is no doubt he is a man of integrity.—I am sure we can never accomplish this without assistance.—That is all you know.—All you can find is yours.—Could we have foreseen this difficulty, we might have avoided it.—I soon perceived I had still the power of motion.—The author dreads the critic ; the miser, the thief ; and the criminal, the judge.

ABRIDGED PROPOSITIONS.

648. A compound sentence may sometimes be converted into a simple one, by abridging its dependent clause.

649. A dependent clause is frequently abridged by omitting the connecting word, and changing the verb of the predicate into a participle or infinitive.

650. The participle in the abridged clause will then stand either with its substantive in the case absolute (769), or as a modifier of the leading subject. Thus, *Absolute*—“ When the boys have finished their lessons, we will play ;” abridged, “ The boys having finished their lessons, we will play,” *As a modifier*—“ When we have finished our lessons we will play ;” abridged, “ Having finished our lessons we will play.” *Passively and absolutely*—“ When our work is finished we will play ;” abridged, “ Our work being finished, we will play.”

651. When the attribute, in the dependent clause, consists of a noun or pronoun in the nominative case after the verb as a copula, it remains in the same case in the abridged form ; thus, “ That he is a *judge* is of no consequence ;” abridged, “ His being a *judge* is of no consequence.”—“ I was not aware that he was a *judge* ;” abridged, “ I was not aware of his being a *judge* ” (799).

652. The difference between these two modes of expression is this : In the full form, the idea contained in the dependent clause is *affirmed* ; in the abridged form, it is *assumed*.

653. When the dependent clause is the object of the verb in the leading clause, it may often be changed for the infinitive with a subject ; as, “ I know that he is a scholar ;” abridged, “ I know him to be a scholar.”

654. When, in such cases, the subject of the dependent clause is the same as the subject of the principal, it is omitted in the abridged form ; as, “ I wished that I might go ;” abridged, I wished to go.”

655. When the subject of the dependent clause, connected by *what*, *which*, *whom*, *where*, *when*, *how*, and the like, and relating to something yet future, is the same as that of the independent one, it is sometimes

abridged by retaining the connecting word, and omitting the subject before the infinitive; as, "I know not what *I shall do*;" abridged, "I know not what *to do*." In this way are to be analyzed and explained such phrases as, "*Where to go*," "*when to read*," "*how to do*," "*whom to send*," &c.

656. A dependent clause may often be abridged by substituting an equivalent qualifying word, or an adjunct; as, "The man *who is honest* will be respected;" abridged, "The *honest* man will be respected."—"When the sun *set* we returned;" abridged, "At sunset we returned."

657. Several dependent clauses may be variously connected with the same leading clause, and abridged in the same manner as above; as, "When they arrived at the station, they were informed that the cars had passed, an hour before;" abridged, "Having arrived [or, on arriving] at the station, they were informed of the cars having passed an hour before."

EXERCISES.

1. Abridge such propositions in the preceding exercises as can be abridged.

2. Extend the following abridged simple sentences into compound sentences.

Having doubled Cape Horn, we sailed in a direct course for California.—What to do I know not.—No one can tell us where to go, or how to do.—The war being at an end, the troops were disbanded.—At the close of navigation, many will be at a loss where to go.—The industrious and capable need fear no want.—A good name is the richest possession we have while living, and the best legacy we leave behind us when dead.—Of his having been successful, we have full assurance.—Of his being successful now, there is reason to doubt.

658. DIRECTIONS FOR ANALYSIS.

State whether the sentence is simple or compound.

If simple, name the logical subject and the logical predicate.

Name the grammatical subject.

Show by what words or phrases, if any, the grammatical subject is modified in the logical.

Show by what modifying words, if any, each modifying word is modified.

Name the grammatical predicate.

Show by what words or phrases, if any, the grammatical predicate is modified in the logical.

Show by what modifying words or phrases, if any, each modifying word is modified.

If the sentence is compound, mention the members or clauses.

State whether they are independent or dependent.

Show how the members are connected.

Analyze each member as a simple sentence, by showing its subject, predicate, &c., as above.

In analyzing sentences, it will be necessary to supply words left out by ellipsis, and to supply the antecedent to the relative *what*, and to the compound relatives, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatever*, *whatsoever*; making also the change which is necessary in the relatives themselves, when the antecedent is supplied (266).

659. MODELS OF ANALYSIS.

1. "God is good."

This is a simple sentence, because it contains a single affirmation (591). *God* is the logical subject, because it is that of which the quality *good* is affirmed.

Is good is the logical predicate, because it affirms a quality of its subject. *Is* is the verb or copula, and *good* is the attribute.

In this sentence, the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical, because they are not modified by other words (610 and 624).

Or, more briefly, thus,

The logical subject is *God*.

The logical predicate is *is good*, in which *is* is the verb or copula, and *good* the attribute.

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

2. "The sun and moon stood still."

This is a simple sentence, with a compound subject.

The logical subject is *The sun and moon*.

The logical predicate is *stood still*.

The grammatical subject is *sun and moon*, compound, and connected by *and*, both modified by *the* (614, 4, Note, and 711).

The grammatical predicate is *stood*, modified by *still*, an adverb, expressing *manner*.

3. "The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom."

This is a simple sentence.

The logical subject is *The fear of the Lord*.

The logical predicate is *is the beginning of wisdom*.

The grammatical subject is *fear*. It is limited by the adjunct of the *Lord*, and shown to be limited by the article *the* (614, 4, Note).

The grammatical predicate is *is beginning*, in which *is* is the verb or copula, and *beginning* the attribute. It is limited by the adjunct, *of wisdom*, and shown to be limited by *the*.

4. "A good man does what (= that which) is right, from principle."

This is a compound sentence, containing one leading and one dependent clause, connected by *which*.

The independent clause is *A good man does that from principle*.

The dependent clause is *which is right*, and is restrictive of *that* in the leading clause, the antecedent to *which*, the connecting word.

In the *first* or leading clause—

The logical subject is *A good man*.

The logical predicate is *does that from principle*.

The grammatical predicate is *man*, qualified by *good*, and shown to be indefinite by *a*.

The grammatical predicate is *does*, modified by its object, *that*, and the adjunct *from principle*; *that* is modified by the relative clause.

In the *second*, or dependent clause—

The logical subject is *which*. It also connects its clause with the antecedent *that*, and restricts it.

The logical predicate is *is right*, in which *is* is the verb or copula, and *right* is the attribute.

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical (610 and 624).

5. "There is nothing which all mankind venerate and admire so much as simple truth."

This is a compound sentence consisting of one independent clause, and two dependent clauses.

The independent clause is *There is nothing*.

The first dependent clause is *which all mankind venerate and admire so much*, connected to the preceding by *which*.

The second dependent clause, connected by *as* to the preceding, as its leading member, is, [*they venerate and admire*] *simple truth*.

In the *first* or independent proposition—

The logical subject is *nothing = not any thing*.

The logical predicate is *is*.

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

There is an introductory expletive, used in such sentences when the subject follows the verb.

In the *second* proposition, dependent on the first—

The logical subject is *all mankind*.

The logical predicate is *venerate and admire which so much*.

The grammatical subject is *mankind*, modified by *all*.

The grammatical predicate is *venerate and admire*, compound, connected by *and*, and modified by their object, *which*, which also connects its clause with its antecedent, *thing*, for the purpose of restricting it, and by the adverbial phrase, *so much*.

In the *third* proposition, connected with the second by *as*—

The logical subject is *they*, understood (for *all mankind*).

The logical predicate is *venerate and admire simple truth*.

The grammatical subject is *they*, or the same as in the preceding clause.

The grammatical predicate is *venerate and admire*, understood, modified by their object, *truth*, and that is qualified by the adjective, *simple*.

6. "Conversation makes a man wax wiser than himself, and that more by an hour's discourse than by a day's meditation."

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two independent clauses, connected by *and*; each of them has its own dependent clause.

The first independent clause is *Conversation makes a man [to] wax wiser*. Its dependent clause is *himself [is]*, connected by *them*.

The second independent clause is *[he does] that more by an hour's discourse*. Its dependent clause is *[he does] by a day's meditation*, connected by *than*.

(The words supplied are included in brackets.)

In the *first* independent clause—

The logical subject is *conversation*.

The logical predicate is *makes a man [to] wax wiser*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *makes*, modified by its object, *man*, which is also the subject of the verb *to wax* (872). It is shown to be used indefinitely by *a*, and is qualified by the predicative adjective *wiser*.

In the clause dependent on the preceding, and connected by *than*—

The logical subject is *himself* (in the nominative) (249).

The logical predicate is *is* (understood).

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

In the *second* independent proposition connected to the first by *and*—

The logical subject is *he* understood (for *a man*).

The logical predicate is *[does] that more by an hour's discourse*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *does* (understood). It is modified by its object *that*, representing the phrase *wax wiser than himself*; also by the adverb *more*, and the adjunct *by discourse*; and *discourse* is limited by *hour's* which again is shown to be indefinite by the article *an*.

In the clause dependent on the preceding, and connected by *than*—

The logical subject is *he (a man)* understood.

The logical predicate is *[does] by a day's meditation*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *does* (understood, as before), modified by the adjunct *by meditation*—*meditation* is limited by *day's*, and that is shown to be indefinite by the article *a*.

7. "The minutest plant or animal, if attentively examined, affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore the Omnipotent hand by which it was created."

This is a compound sentence, consisting of one independent clause, and two dependent clauses.

The independent clause is *The minutest plant or animal affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore the Omnipotent hand*.

The first dependent clause is [*it is*] attentively examined, connected as a condition by *if* to the leading verbs *affords* and *obliges*.

The second dependent clause is *by which it was created*, connected also by *which* to *hand* in order to describe it.

In the independent clause—

The logical subject is *The minutest plant or animal*.

The logical predicate is *affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore the Omnipotent hand*.

The grammatical subject is *plant* and *animal*, compound; its parts are connected as alternates by *or* (569), and both modified by *minutest* (704).

The grammatical predicate is *affords* and *obliges*, compound; its parts are connected by *and*. *Affords* is modified by its object, *wonders*, which is limited by *a thousand*. *Obliges* is modified by its object, *us*, the infinitive *to admire* and *to adore*, of which *us* is also the subject, and these infinitives are modified by their object, *hand*, which is qualified and described by *Omnipotent*, and the relative clause *by which it was created*. The verbs *affords* and *obliges* are modified also by the conditional clause *if [it is] attentively examined*.

In the *first* dependent clause—

The logical subject is *it*, referring to *plant* or *animal*.

The logical predicate is *is attentively examined*.

The grammatical subject is *it*.

The grammatical predicate is *is examined*; which is modified by the adverb of manner, *attentively*.

In the *second* dependent clause—

The logical subject is *it*, referring to *plant* or *animal*.

The logical predicate is *was created by which*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *was created*. It is modified by the adjunct, *by which*, referring to *hand*, its antecedent:

The preceding process of analysis, which takes up so much room on paper, may be accomplished *orally* with great rapidity. Let this be done in the following—

EXERCISES.

In the same way, analyze the following sentences:—

Knowledge is power.—Truth is the basis of honor: It is the beginning of virtue: It liveth and conquereth for ever.—Time is a gift bestowed on us by the bounty of Heaven.—The heart and the tongue are the best and the worst parts of man.

Proficiency in language is a rare accomplishment.

Praise is more acceptable to the heart than profitable to the mind.

He who is first to condemn, will often be the last to forgive. True religion gives order and beauty to the world, and, after life, a better existence.

A little philosophy carries us away from truth, while a greater brings us back to it again.

What we know is nothing, but what we are ignorant of is immense.

Whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them.

Many men have been obscure in their origin and birth, but great and glorious in life and death.

To hear patiently, and to answer precisely, are the great perfections of conversation.

Books which save the trouble of thinking, and inventions which save the labor of working, are in universal demand.

Solon compared the people to the sea, and orators and counsellors to the winds ; for (he said) that the sea would be calm and quiet if the winds did not trouble it.

Some cultivate philosophy in theory, who are imperfect philosophers in practice ; as others avocate religion, who are nevertheless indifferently religious.

II. CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

660. WORDS are arranged in sentences, according to certain rules, called the *Rules of Syntax* (662 and 666).

661. GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

1. In every sentence there must be a *verb* and its *nominative* (or subject), expressed or understood.
2. Every article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, must have a substantive (109), expressed or understood.
3. Every nominative, or subject has its own verb, expressed or understood.
4. Every finite verb (that is, every verb not in the infinitive or participles) has its own nominative, expressed or understood.
5. Every possessive case is governed by a noun or substantive whose signification it serves to limit.
6. Every objective case is governed by a transitive verb in the active

voice, or a preposition, or denotes circumstances of *time, value, weight, or measure* (828).

7. The infinitive mood is governed by a verb, adjective, or noun.

The exceptions to these general principles will appear under the Rules of Syntax.

PARTS OF SYNTAX.

662. The Rules of Syntax may all be referred to three heads, viz., *Concord* or *agreement*, *Government*, and *Position*.

663. CONCORD is the agreement which one word has with another in gender, number, case, or person.

664. GOVERNMENT is the power which one word has in determining the mood, tense, or case, of another word. The word governed by another word is called its *regimen*.

665. POSITION means the place which a word occupies in relation to other words in a sentence.

666. In the English language, which has but few inflections, the meaning of a sentence often depends much on the *position* of the words of which it consists.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I.—Substantives denoting the same person or thing agree in case; as,

The river Thames. Cicero the orator. Paul the apostle. I myself. I Paul have written it. I Wisdom dwell with prudence. Napoleon the third (emperor of that name). Ye men of Athens. Queen Mary (667, &c.)

RULE II.—1. An adjective or participle qualifies the substantive to which it belongs; as,

A good boy; a new book; and old hat; a rough road; a steep hill; a lofty mountain; God is good; an amusing story; a man loved by all.

2. Adjectives denoting *one*, qualify nouns in the singular: adjectives denoting *more than one*, qualify nouns in the plural; as,

One man; this book; that house; two men; these books; those houses; the sixth day; seven days; several weeks; many sorrows; these people this court (676. &c.)

RULE III.—1. The article *a* or *an* is put before common nouns in the singular number, when used *indefinitely*; as,

A man; a house; a tree; an acorn; an hour; a history; an historical fact; a youth; a unit. 186—187 and 707.

2. The article *the* is put before common nouns either singular or plural, when used *definitely*; as,

"The sun shines."—"The moon rises."—"The city of New York."—"The age of improvement."—"The seven stars."—"The twelve Cæsars."—"The most virtuous (men) are the most happy" (707, 2).

RULE IV.—Pronouns agree with the nouns for which they stand in gender, number, and person; as,

"All that a man bath will he give for his life."—"A tree is known by its fruit."—"Jane is fond of her books; though she has long lessons, she learns them well."—"The court has finished its business."—"The people elect their rulers" (729, &c.)

RULE V.—The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person; as,

"The man who speaks."—"The book which was lost."—"The friends whom we love."—"Ye who love mercy."—"I that speak to you."—"The same man that we saw."—"The best thing you can do" (742, &c.)

RULE VI.—The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative; as,

"I am."—"Thou speakest."—"He reads."—"We talk."—"Time flies."—"Who did that?"—"I know who did it."—"Do you know who is to blame?"—"He is taller than I (am)—than she (is)" (760, &c.)

RULE VII.—A substantive whose case depends on no other word is put in the nominative absolute; as,

"The ship having arrived, all is safe."—"He being alone, there was no one to disturb him."—"Your fathers, where are they?"—"Or I only and Barnabas, have not we power to forbear working?"—"O Absalom! my son, my son!"—"Plato, thou reasonest well" (768, &c.)

RULE VIII.—A verb agrees with its nominative in number and person; as,

"I write."—"Thou writest."—"He reads."—"We sell."—"They buy."—"John and James are brothers."—"Jane or Mary is at home."—"The army is on its march."—"The people are kind."—"The man who met us."—"He that is soon angry dealeth foolishly."—"Come (ye) and see."—"Go thou and do likewise."—"Who art thou?" (776, &c.)

RULE IX.—The predicate substantive after a verb is put in the same case as the subject before it; as,

"I am he."—"Ye are they who justify yourselves."—"God is love."—"Who do men say that I, the Son of man, am?"—"He is a good man."—"He is said to be a good man."—"They represented him to be a good man."—"Saying is not doing" (798, &c.)

RULE X.—A transitive verb in the active voice, governs the objective case; as,

"We love him."—"He loves us."—"Whom shall I send?"—"Send me."—"Honor thy father and mother."—"Them that honor me I will honor."—"Boys love to play."—"Boys love playing."—"I know that thou fearest God."—"Jesus I know, and Paul I know; but who art thou?" (801. &c.)

RULE XI.—A preposition governs the objective case; as,

"Of him, and through him, and to him, are all things: to whom be glory for ever."—"To whom much is given, of him much shall be required."—"Come with us and we will do (to) thee good."—"Science they do not pretend to."—"Whom did he speak to?" (818, &c.)

RULE XII.—Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions; as,

"Confide in,"—"dispose of,"—"adapted to,"—"swerve from," &c. (824, &c.)

RULE XIII.—One substantive governs another in the possessive, when the latter substantive limits the signification of the former; as,

"Pompey's pillar."—"Virtue's reward."—"Locke's essays."—"For righteousness' sake."—"For conscience' sake."—"The duke of Wellington's funeral."—"The secretary of state's office."—"Whose pen is this?"—"It is John's—it is not mine" (241).—"It came from the stationer's."—"Brown, Smith, & Co.'s warehouse" (839, &c.)

RULE XIV.—The subjunctive mood is used in dependent clauses, when both contingency or doubt, and futurity, are expressed; as,

"Though he slay me yet will I trust in him."—"If he study he will improve."—"If he do but touch the hills they shall smoke."—"See thou do it not" (857, &c.)

RULE XV.—The infinitive mood is governed by *verbs*, *nouns*, or *adjectives*; as,

"I desire to learn."—"A desire to learn."—"Anxious to learn."—"To do good and to communicate, forget not."—"To perform is better than to promise."—"Fools who came to scoff, remained to pray."—"Let us go."—"You need not go" (865, &c.)

RULE XVI.—Participles have the construction of nouns, adjectives, and verbs; as,

(NOUN.)—"Saying is not doing."—"In the keeping of his commandments."—"A forsaking of the truth."—"Avoid doing evil." (ADJECTIVE.)—"The sword hangs rusting on the wall."—"A bound book."—"The lost sheep." (VERB.)—"Having loved his own, he loved them to the end."—"The men stood speechless, hearing a voice, but seeing no man" (890, &c.)

RULE XVII.—In the use of verbs, and words that in point of time relate to each other, the order of time must be observed ; as,

"I have known him many years."—"I expected he would come" (not "would have come.")—"I expect he will come."—"It would have been easy to do it" (not "to have done it.")—"I expected to go" (not "to have gone") (908, &c.)

RULE XVIII.—Adverbs modify *verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs* ; as,

"John speaks distinctly ; he is remarkably diligent ; and reads very correctly."—"Julia sings well."—"The day is far spent."—"Time passes swiftly and imperceptibly."—"Where have you been ?"—"Whom did you see there ?"—"When will you return ?"—"Soon" (922, &c.)

RULE XIX.—Conjunctions connect *words, phrases, or sentences* ; as,

"You and he must go ; but I stay at home."—"Honor thy father and thy mother."—"He or his brother is to blame."—"They can neither read nor write."—"He is slow, but sure."—"While the earth remaineth, seed-time and harvest, and cold and heat, and summer and winter, and day and night, shall not cease" (944, &c.)

RULE XX.—Interjections have no grammatical connection with the other words of a sentence ; as,

"O ye of little faith!"—"Ah me!"—"O cruel thou!"—"Envious of David Garrick? Poh! poh! Pshaw! pshaw!" (970, &c.)

GENERAL RULE.

In every sentence, the words employed, and the order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended ; and, at the same time, all the parts of a sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be preserved throughout (973).

ELLIPSIS.

RULE 1.—An ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissible, when they can be supplied by the mind with such

certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense ; as,
“ We walked by faith, not by sight ” (977, &c.)

RULE 2.—An ellipsis is not allowable when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with any impropriety (979, &c.)

SUBSTANTIVES IN APPosition.

667. RULE I:—*Substantives denoting the same person or thing, agree in case* (162) ; as :—

“ *Cicero the orator.*”—“ *I Paul have written it.*”—“ *We, the people of the United States.*”—“ *Ye woods and wilds.*”—“ *This was said to us men.*”—“ *The river Thames.*”—“ *Jane and Eliza, Mary’s cousins.*”—“ *The chief of the princes, he who defied the enemy,*” &c.—“ *That was related of Dr. West, him who translated Pindar.*”

668. The word annexed is said to be in *apposition* with the other, and is added to express some attribute, description, or appellation, belonging to it. The words so related must always be in the same member of the sentence—that is, both in the subject, or both in the predicate. A substantive predicated of another is not in apposition with it, though denoting the same thing.

The substantive in apposition commonly stands *last* ; sometimes *first*.

669. Two or more words forming one complex name, or a name and a title prefixed, though really in apposition, are properly declined and parsed as one word ; as, “ *George Washington*”—“ *General Washington’s tent.*” In such examples, the sign of the possessive is annexed only to the last (848), and sometimes also when the words in apposition do not form a complex name ; as, “ *We arrived at our friend Wilson’s plantation.*”

For the plural of proper names with titles prefixed, see 161.

670. A noun is sometimes put in apposition with a sentence, and a sentence or infinitive mood, sometimes in apposition with a noun ; as, “ *The weather forbids walking, a prohibition hurtful to us both.*”—“ *The promise, that he should be the heir of the world, was given to Abraham.*”—“ *Delightful task, to rear the tender thought !*” 867, 4.

671. A plural term is sometimes used in apposition after two or more substantives singular, to combine and give them emphasis ; as, “ *Time, labor, money, all were lost.*” Sometimes the same substantive is repeated for the sake of emphasis ; as, “ *Cisterns, broken cisterns.*”

672. Distributive words are sometimes put in apposition with a plural substantive ; as, “ *They went each of them on his way*” (301).—“ *They all went, some one way, and some another.*” In the construction of a sentence, the distributive word is sometimes omitted ; as, “ *They [interrogative pronouns] do not relate [each] to a preceding noun.*”

673. Of this character are such expressions as the following : “ *They stood in each other’s way*”—that is, *they stood each in the other’s way.*—“ *They love one another*”—that is, *they love, one (loves) an other* (311).

674. A substantive is sometimes connected with another in a sort of apposition by the word *as*, meaning *in the condition of*, *in the capacity of*, thus, “*Cicero, as an orator, was bold—as a soldier, he was timid.*” But here—the reverse of the former case (669)—the substantive in apposition with another in the possessive case, or with a possessive pronoun, is *without* the sign, while the other has it; as, “*John’s reputation as an author was great—his fame as an artist still greater.*”

675. In designating time and place, instead of a noun in apposition, a preposition with its case is often used; as, “*The month of August.*”—“*The state of Ohio.*”—“*The city of New York.*”

Throughout the exercises in syntax—*first*, correct the errors; *secondly*, analyze orally the sentences so corrected; *thirdly*, parse all the words etymologically; and *last*, parse syntactically the word or words to which the rule refers.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, what words are in apposition, and to what? In what case do they agree? Give the rule:—

Religion, the support of adversity, adorns prosperity.—Byron, the poet, the only son of Captain John Byron, was born in 1788.—Coleridge, a remarkable man, and rich imaginative poet, was the friend of Wordsworth.—My brother William’s estate has been sold.

“And on the palace floor, a lifeless corse she lay.”

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

As the nominative and the objective case in nouns are alike in English, there is no liability to error under this rule, except in the case of pronouns.

Please give that book to my brother William, he who stands by the window.—The gentleman has arrived, him whom I mentioned before.—Do you speak so to me, I who have so often befriended you?—I speak of Virgil, he who wrote the *Aeneid*.

AN ADJECTIVE WITH A SUBSTANTIVE.

676. RULE II.—1. *An adjective or participle qualifies the substantive to which it belongs* (196); as, “*A good man.*

2. *Adjectives denoting ONE, qualify nouns in the sin-*

gular; adjectives denoting more than one, qualify nouns in the plural; as, "This man."—"These men."—"Six feet."

677. Adjectives denoting one are the ordinals *first, second, third, &c.* (206), *last—this, that—one, each, every, either, neither, much,* and its comparative *more—all, denoting quantity, enough, whole.*

678. When any of these is joined to a plural noun, the whole is regarded as one aggregate; as, "The first two weeks"—"Every ten miles"—"The last four lines"—"The last days of summer," &c. But the verb after such subjects is usually plural.

679. In such expressions, the cardinal number, if small, may precede the words *first* and *last*, but not the other cardinals; as, "The two first weeks"—"The four last lines" (705-3), meaning the two weeks *at the beginning, or preceding all the rest—the four lines at the end, or succeeding all the rest.*

680. Two or more adjectives, expressing qualities that belong to different objects of the same name, and that name expressed only with the last, should have an article before each; as, "The red and the white rose"—that is, *two roses, the one red, and the other white.* So, "The first and the second page"—"The first and the second verse"—"The Old and the New World." It has become common, however, even with good writers, to drop the second article, and change the singular into the plural, to express the same idea; thus, "The first and second pages"—"The first and second verses," &c. This mode of expression, though incorrect in itself, is less stiff and formal than the other. (See Appendix IX.) When adjectives denoting *one* are connected by *or, nor, &c.,* the noun must be singular.

681. Adjectives denoting *more than one* are the following, viz.—all cardinal numbers above *one*; as, *two, three, &c.—few, many,* with its comparative *more—all, denoting number, both, several, and enow.* *Enow* is nearly obsolete.

682. Adjectives without a substantive expressed are often used as nouns; as, "The rich and the poor meet together" (201). This is especially common with all adjective pronouns except the possessive, and the distributive *every*; as, "Of books, *some* are good, *some* are bad."—"All things come alike to *all*" (289.)

683. Adjectives are sometimes used indefinitely after an infinitive or participle, without reference to any particular substantive, to express an abstract idea; as, "To be *good* is to be *happy.*"—"Being *good* is better than being *great.*"

684. When an adjective is a predicate (621), it must qualify its substantive in the subject; as, "God is *good, he* is also *just.*"—"To do *good* to others is *profitable* to ourselves."—"That *men* should *lie*, is *base.*"

685. An adjective in the predicate sometimes qualifies the subject, not considered simply as a substantive, but as a substantive affected by the action of the connecting verb, which, in that case, may be regarded as a strengthened or modified copula (601); as, "That *type* stands *low.*"—"This *fruit* tastes *bitter.*"—"The *wind* blows *cold.*"—"The *door* is painted

green."—"John grows tall."—"Milk turns sour."—"Clay burns white."—"Down feels soft."

686. Adjectives thus used are sometimes, though improperly, called *adverbial adjectives*. As the adverb is sometimes used improperly instead of the adjective in such expressions, the distinction should be carefully marked. Thus—

The *adverb* expresses the *manner of the act*.

The *adjective* expresses the *condition, or state of the subject*.

Hence, when the meaning intended can be expressed by the corresponding adjunct (541), the *adverb* should be used; as, "The stream flows *rapidly*" (in a rapid manner). Here the adverb *rapidly* modifies the verb *flows*. But when the meaning can be expressed nearly by substituting the verb *to be* or *to become* as a copula, the *adjective* should be used; as, "The stream grows [becomes] *rapid*." This is further illustrated by the following examples, viz.:—

ADJECTIVES.

John grows [becomes] <i>old</i> .	John grows <i>rapidly</i> [in a rapid manner.]
She looks [is] <i>cold</i> .	She looks <i>coldly</i> [in a cold manner] on him.
He feels [is] <i>warm</i> .	He feels <i>warmly</i> [in a warm manner] the insult.
The eagle flies [is] <i>high</i> .	The eagle flies <i>swiftly</i> [in a swift manner.]
The apple tastes [is] <i>sweet</i> .	Mary sings <i>sweetly</i> [in a sweet manner.]

ADVERBS.

687. Adjectives should not be used as adverbs; thus, "*miserable poor*," should be, "*miserably poor*"—"sings *elegant*," should be, "*sings elegantly*." So also, adverbs should not be used as adjectives (925); thus, "He arrived *safely*," should be, "He arrived *safe*."

688. *This here, that there, them books*, are vulgarisms, for *this, that, those books*.

689. An adjective sometimes qualifies an adjective and noun together as one compound term; as, "*A venerable old man*"—"The *best black tea*."

690. Sometimes an adjective modifies the meaning of another adjective; as, "*red-hot iron*"—"a *bright-red color*."

691. Several adjectives frequently qualify the same substantive; as, "*A large, strong, black horse*."

This, that—these, those.

692. When two or more objects are contrasted, *this* refers to the last mentioned, *that* to the first; as, *Virtue* and *vice* are opposite qualities; *that* ennobles the mind, *this* debases it."

693. *Former* and *latter* are used in the same way (304). So also, *the one, the other*, referring to words in the singular or plural (307).

694. When no contrast is expressed, *this* refers to a thing near, or just mentioned, and *that* to a thing more remote or formerly mentioned.

CONSTRUCTION OF COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

695. When one object is compared with one other of the *same class*, or with more than one of a different class, individually, or in the aggregate,

the comparative is used; as, "James is the *weaker* of the two"—"He is *taller* than his father.—"He is *taller* than any of his brothers."

696. Sometimes however, when two objects of the same class are compared, the superlative is used, being thought to be less stiff and formal; as, "James is the *weakest* of the two."

697. When one object is compared with more than one of the *same class*, the superlative is used, and commonly has the prefixed (713); as, "John is the *tallest* amongst us"—"He is the *best* scholar in a class of ten"—"He is the *most diligent* of them all."

698. In the use of the comparative and superlative, when more than two objects are compared, the following distinction should be carefully observed, viz.:—

699. When the comparative is used, the latter term of comparison must always *exclude* the former; thus, "Eve was fairer than any of her daughters."—"Russia is larger than any *other* country in Europe."—"China has a greater population than any nation of Europe," or, "than any *other* nation on the globe." Thus used, the comparative requires *than* after it (963-2).

700. When the superlative is used, the latter term of comparison must always *include* the former; as, "Russia is the largest country in Europe."—"China has the greatest population of any nation on the globe."

701. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper; thus, "James is *more taller* than John"—omit *more*—"He is the *most wisest* of the three"—omit *most*.

702. The double comparative *lesser*, however, is sanctioned by good authority; as, "Lesser Asia"—"Every lesser thing."—*N. Y. Review*.—"Like Lesser streams."—*Coleridge*.

703. Adjectives not admitting comparison (223), should not be compared, nor connected with comparative words, such as, *so*, *as*, and the like. Thus, *more universal*, *so universal*, *as universal*, should be *more general*, *so general*, *as general*; and so of similar words. As exceptions see 224.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVES.

704. An adjective is commonly placed before its substantive; as, "A *good* man"—"A *virtuous* woman."

1. Adjectives should be placed as near as possible to their substantives, and so that it may be certain to what noun they belong; thus, "A new pair of shoes"—"A fine field of corn"—"A good glass of wine," should be, "A pair of new shoes"—"A field of fine corn"—"A glass of good wine"—because the adjectives qualify *shoes*, *corn*, *wine*, and not *pair*, *field*, *glass*. When ambiguity can not otherwise be avoided, the use of the hyphen may be resorted to with advantage; thus, "A *good-man's* coat"—"A *good man's* coat."

2. When an adjective qualifies two or more substantives, connected by *and*, it is usually expressed before the first, and understood to the rest; as, "A man of *great wisdom and moderation*."

3. It has been disputed whether the numerals, *two*, *three*, *four*, &c., should be placed *before* the words *first* and *last*, or *after* them, when used to indicate the beginning and the end of a series. On this point, with small numbers, usage is nearly equally divided; and, as the matter now stands, in some cases the one form seems to be preferable, and in some, the other. In this construction, as in some others which involve no impropriety, euphony and taste seem to govern. This much is certain—neither form can be justly condemned, on the ground of either authority or propriety.—See Appendix X. p. 256.

705. An adjective is placed *after* its substantive—

1. Generally when it qualifies a pronoun; as, "We saw him *faint* and *wearied*."
2. When other words depend on the adjective; as, "A *man* sick of the *palsy*"—"A *pole* ten feet *long*."
3. When the quality results from the action expressed by a verb; as, "*Extravagance makes a man poor*"—"Virtue makes a poor *man happy*."
4. When the adjective is predicated of the substantive; as, "*God is good*"—"We are *happy*"—"He who is *good* is *happy*"—"He looks *feeble*"—"To play is *pleasant*"—"That he should fail is *strange*."

706. In many cases, the adjective may stand either before or after its substantive, and sometimes—especially in poetry, and in connection with an infinitive or participle—at a considerable distance from it. In all these, the variety is so great that no rules can provide for them. Care, however, should be taken to place the adjective where its relation to the substantive will be clear and natural, and its meaning effective.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

Correct the errors in the following sentences, and give a reason for the change:—

These kind of books can hardly be got.—I have not been from home this ten days.—We walked two mile in half an hour.—I ordered six ton of coal, and these makes the third that has been delivered.—This lake is six fathom deep.—The garden wall is five rod long; I measured it with a ten-foot pole.—Twenty heads of cattle passed along the road.—It is said that a fleet of six sails has just entered the bay.—That three pair of gloves cost twelve shilling.—(159—2) A man who is prudent and industrious, will, by that means, increase his fortune.—Charles formed expensive habits, and by those means became poor.—If you are fond of those sort of things you may have them.—(680) There was a blot on the first or second pages.—The first and second verse are better than the third and fourth.

(687) Come quick and do not hinder us.—Time passes swift, though it appears to move slow.—We got home safely before

dark, and found our friends sitting comfortably around the fire.—The boat glides smooth over the lake.—(685) Magnesia feels smoothly.—Open the door widely.—The door is painted greenly.

(688) Hand me that there pen, for this here one is the worst of all.—Them books were sold for a lesser price than they cost.

(692) "For beast and bird;

These to their grassy couch, those to their nests, repair."

"Night's shadows hence, from thence the morning's shine;
That bright, this dark, this earthly, that divine."

(694) That very subject which we are now discussing is still involved in mystery.—This vessel, of which you spoke yesterday, sailed in the evening.

(698-700) That merchant is the wealthiest of all his neighbors.—China has a greater population than any nation on earth.—That ship is larger than any of its class.—There is more gold in California than in any part of North America.—The birds of Brazil are more beautiful than any in South America.—Philadelphia is the most regular of any city in Europe.—Israel loved Joseph more than all his children.—Solomon was wiser than any of the ancient kings.

(701, 702) A more worthier man you can not find.—The nightingale's voice is the most sweetest in the grove.—A worser evil yet awaits us.—The rumor has not spread so universally as we supposed.—Draw that line more perpendicular.—This figure is a more perfect circle than that is.—He is far from being so perfect as he thinks he is.

THE ARTICLE AND ITS NOUN.

707. RULE III.—1. *The article A or AN is put before common nouns in the singular number when used INDEFINITELY* (185); as, "A man"—"An apple;" that is, "any man"—"any apple" (186, 187).

2. *The article THE is put before common nouns, either singular or plural, when used DEFINITELY* (191); as, "The sun rises"—"The city of New York."

[See Etymology of the Article 183.]

708. A common noun, in the singular number, without an article or limiting word, is usually taken in its widest sense; as, "Man is mortal"—"Anger is a short madness,"

709. *The* is sometimes used before a singular noun, to particularize a species or class, without specifying any individual under it; as, *the oak*, *the rose*, *the horse*, *the raven*, meaning not any particular *oak*, *rose*, *horse*, or *raven*, but the class, so called, in a general sense. In such cases, whether the noun is used to denote a class or an individual, can be determined only by the sense, as in the following examples: “*The oak* produces acorns”—“*The oak* was struck by lightning.”—“*The horse* is a noble animal”—“*The horse* ran away.”—“*The lion* shall eat straw like *the ox*”—“*The lion* tore *the ox* in pieces.”—“*The night* is the time for repose”—“*The night* was dark.”

710. Every article belongs to a noun, expressed or understood, except as in 714 and 715.

711. When several nouns are connected in the same construction, the article is commonly expressed with the first, and understood to the rest; as, “The men, women, and children are expected.” But when emphasis, or a different form of the article is required, the article is prefixed; as, “The men, the women, and the children, are expected”—“A horse and *an ass*.”

712. But when several nouns in the same construction are disjunctively connected, the article must be repeated; as, “The men, or the women, or the children, are expected.”

713. *The* is commonly put before an adjective used as a noun; as, “*The righteous* is more excellent than his neighbor.” Also before adjectives in the superlative degree, when comparison is implied (213); as, “Gold is *the most precious* of the metals.” But when comparison is not implied, the superlative is either without an article, or has *a* or *an* preceding it; as, “*A* most excellent man.”

714. *The* is sometimes put intensively before adjectives and adverbs in the comparative degree; as, “*The higher* the mountain, *the colder* its top”—“*The faster* he goes, *the sooner* he stops.” Thus used it performs the function of an *adverb*.

715. An adjective placed after its noun as an epithet, commonly has the article *the* before it; as, “Alexander *the Great*”—“Charles *the Fifth*.”

This may be considered as inverted for “The great Alexander.” “The fifth Charles;” or, by ellipsis, for “Alexander, the great [conqueror],” “Charles, the fifth [emperor of the name].”

716. *A* or *an* is sometimes put before the adjectives *few*, *hundred*, *thousand*, followed by a plural noun; as, “*A few* men”—“*A hundred* acres”—“*A thousand* miles.” In such cases, the adjective and noun may be considered as a compound term, expressing one aggregate, and having the construction of a collective noun (790). Or the adjective may be regarded as a collective noun (207), and the noun following governed by *of*, understood; as, “*A few* [of] men”—“*A hundred* [of] acres,” &c. This is evidently the construction of larger numbers; thus, we never say, “A million dollars,” but, “*A* million of dollars.”

717. When two or more adjectives belong to the *same* noun, the article of the noun is put with the first adjective, but not with the rest; as, “*A red* and *white* rose,” that is, *one* rose, partly *red* and partly *white*. But,

718. When two or more adjectives belong each to a *different* object of the same name, the article of the noun is put with each adjective; as, “*A*

red and white rose"—"A red rose and a white rose," that is, *two roses, one red and the other white.*

719. The same remark applies to the demonstrative *that*; as, "That great and good man"—"That great and *that* good man."

720. So also when two or more epithets follow a noun, if both designate the *same* person, the article precedes the first only. If they designate different persons, the article must precede each; thus, "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer," means *one* man, who is both a bookseller and a stationer; but, "Johnson the bookseller, and the stationer," means *two* men, one a bookseller, named Johnson, and the other a stationer, not named.

721. When two nouns after a word implying comparison, refer to the same person or thing, the last *must want* the article; as, "He is a better soldier than statesman." But when they refer to different persons, the last *must have* the article; as, "He is a better soldier than a statesman [would be]."

722. The article *a* before the adjectives *few* and *little*, renders the meaning *positive*; as, "A few men can do that"—"He deserves a little credit." But without the article the meaning is *negative*; as, "Few men can do that"—"He deserves *little* credit."

723. In the translation of the Scriptures, and some other writings of that time, *the* is often used before *which*; as, "That worthy name by *the which ye are called*"—"The which when I had seen."—*Bunyan.*

724. The article is generally omitted before *proper names, abstract nouns,* and names of *virtues, vices, arts, sciences, &c.,* when not restricted, and such other nouns as are of themselves so manifestly definite as not to require it; as, "*Christmas* is in *December*"—"Logic and mathematics are important studies"—"*Truth* is mighty." Still certain proper names, and names used in a certain way, have the article prefixed; as, "*The Alps*"—"The Rhine"—"*The Azores*"—"The immortal *Washington*"—"He was a *Johnson*, of the family of *the Johnsons*, in England."

POSITION OF THE ARTICLE.

725. The article is commonly placed before its noun; as, "*A man*"—"The man."

726. If the noun is qualified by an adjective before it, the article precedes the adjective; as, "*A good man.*"

727. But the article follows the adjectives, *all, such, many, what, both;* and all adjectives preceded by *too, so, as, or how;* as, "*All the men*"—"Such a man"—"*Many a man*"—"What a man"—"*Both the men*"—"Too great a man"—"*So great a man*"—"As great a man"—"*How great a man.*"

728. When the adjective follows the noun, not as an epithet, the article remains before the noun, and the adjective is without it; as, "A man destitute of principle should not be trusted." For an adjective as an epithet, see (715) above.

NOTE.—The use of the article is so varied, that the best general rule is to study what the sense requires, both as to its proper use and position.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

Change, or omit, or insert the article, where necessary, and give a reason for so doing :—

(707-1 and 2) A country around New York is beautiful in a spring.—A life of the modern soldier is ill represented by heroic fiction.—Earth existed at first in the state of chaos.—An age of chivalry is gone.—A crowd at the door was so great that we could not enter.—The large number of men was present.

(708) The fire, the air, the earth, and the water, are four elements of the philosophers.—Reason was given to a man to control his passions.—A man was made to mourn.—The gold is corrupting.—The silver is a precious metal.

(709) Horse is a noble animal.—A lion is generous, a cat is treacherous, a dog is faithful.—A horse-leech cries, “Give, give,” and a grave is never satisfied.—The war has means of destruction more dreadful than a cannon or a sword.

(712) Neither the man nor boy was to blame.—A man may be a mechanic, or farmer, or lawyer, and be useful and respected; but idler or spendthrift can never be either.

(713) We should ever pay attention to graceful and becoming.—The memory of just is blessed; but the name of wicked shall rot.—Best men are often those who say least.—James is a man of the most brilliant talents.—Keep good and throw bad away.

(715) Herod Great was distinguished for his cruelty; Pliny younger for gentleness and benignity.—Peter Hermit proposed his plan for recovering Jerusalem to Pope Martin II.—The father of William Cowper, poet, was chaplain to George II.

(717) A red and a white flag was the only one displayed from the tower.—A beautiful stream flows between the old and new mansion.—A hot and cold spring were found in the same neighborhood.—The young and old man seem to be on good terms.—The first and second book are difficult.—Thomson the watchmaker and the jeweler made one of the party.

(721) A man may be a better soldier than a logician.—There is much truth in the saying that fire is a better servant than a master.—He is not so good a poet as an historian.

(722) It is always necessary to pay little attention to business.—A little respect should be paid to those who deserve none.—Let the damsel abide with us a few days.—Are not my days a few?—A few men of his age enjoy so good health.

A PRONOUN AND ITS ANTECEDENT.

729. Rule IV.—*Pronouns agree with the words for which they stand, in gender, number, and person; as, “All that a man hath will he give for his life”—“A tree is known by its fruit.”*

SPECIAL RULES.

730. Rule 1.—*When a pronoun refers to two or more words taken together, it becomes plural; and, if they are of different persons, prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, “He and she did their duty,” “John and you and I will do our duty.”*

RULE 2.—*When a pronoun refers to two or more words in the singular taken separately, or to one of them exclusively, it must be singular; as, “A clock or a watch moves merely as it is moved.”*

RULE 3.—*But if either of the words referred to is plural, the pronoun must be plural also; as, “Neither he nor they trouble themselves.” Distributives are always of the third person singular (301).*

731. Nouns are taken together when connected by *and*—separately when connected by *or* or *nor*, as above; also after *each*, *every*, *no*, though connected by *and*; as, “Each book and each paper is in its place.”

732. When singular nouns of different genders are taken separately, they can not be represented by a pronoun, for want of a singular pronoun, common gender, except by a clumsy repetition of pronouns of the corresponding genders; thus, “If any *man* or *woman* shall violate *his* or *her* pledge, *he* or *she* shall pay a fine.” The use of the plural pronoun in such cases, though sometimes used, is improper; as, “If any *man* or *woman* shall violate *their* pledge,” &c.

733. Pronouns referring to singular nouns or other words, of the common gender (126), taken in a general sense, are commonly masculine; as, “A parent should love *his* child.”—“Every person has *his* faults.”—“No one should commend *himself*.” The want of a singular personal pronoun, common gender, is felt also in this construction.

734. A pronoun referring to a collective noun in the singular, expressing many as one whole, should be in the neuter singular; but when the noun expresses many as individuals, the pronoun should be plural; as, “The army proceeded on *its* march.”—“The court were divided in *their* opinion.”

735. A singular noun after the phrase, “*many a*,” may take a pronoun in the plural, but never in the same clause; as—

“In Hawick twinkled *many a* light
Behind him soon *they* set in night.”—W. Scott.

736. The personal pronoun is sometimes used at the beginning of a sentence, instead of the word *person* or *persons*; as, "He who"—"They who"—also "Those who"—for "The persons who."

737. Pronouns representing nouns personified (129), take the gender of the noun as a *person*; as, "Night sable goddess, from her ebon throne." But pronouns representing nouns taken metaphorically (1046, 3) agree with them in their *literal* sense; as, "Pitt was the *pillar* which in *its* strength upheld the state."

738. It is improper in the progress of a sentence to denote the same person by pronouns of different numbers; as, "I labored long to make *thee* happy, and now *you* reward me by ingratitude." It should be either "to make *you* happy," or "*thou* rewardest," (245).

739. In the use of pronouns, when it would be uncertain to which of two or more antecedent words (229) a pronoun refers, the ambiguity may be avoided by repeating the noun, instead of using the pronoun, or by changing the form of the sentence, thus, "When we see the beautiful variety of color in the rainbow, we are led to consider *its* cause"—better "the cause of *that* variety."

POSITION OF PRONOUNS.

740. The first and the second personal pronoun commonly stand instead of nouns implied, but not expressed. Possessive pronouns, and the pronouns of the third person, are commonly placed after their antecedents (229); but sometimes this order, especially in poetry, is reversed.

741. When words of different persons come together, the usual order of arrangement, in English, is to place the second person before the third, and the first person last; as, "You and he and I are sent for."—"This matter concerns *you* or *him* or *me*."

In connection with these rules and observations, see also the observations on gender (128–134), on number (155–160), and on personal pronouns (240–252).

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In each sentence, state the antecedent words to which the pronouns refer; change the pronouns which are wrong, and give a reason for the change:—

(729) A person's success in life depends on their exertions; if they shall aim at nothing, they shall certainly achieve nothing.—Extremes are not in its nature favorable to happiness.—A man's recollections of the past regulate their anticipations of the future.—Let every boy answer for themselves.—Each of us had more than we wanted.—Every one of you should attend to your own business (301).

(730-1) Discontent and sorrow manifested itself in his countenance.—Both cold and heat have its extremes.—You and your friend should take care of themselves.—You and I must be diligent in your studies.

(730-2) John or James will favor us with their company.—One or other must relinquish their claim.—Neither wealth nor honor confers happiness on their votaries.—(731) Every plant and every flower proclaims their Maker's praise.—Each day and each hour brings their changes.—Poverty and wealth have each their own temptations.—No thought, no word, no action, however secret, can escape in the judgment, whether they be good or evil.

(732) Let every man and every woman strive to do their best.—If any boy or girl shall neglect her duty, they shall forfeit their place.—No lady or gentleman would do a thing so unworthy of them.

(733) One should not think too highly of themselves —A teacher should always consult the interest of her pupils.—A parent's care for her children is not always requited.—Every one should consider their own frailties.—Let each esteem others better than herself.

(734) The assembly held their meetings in the evening.—The court, in their wisdom, decided otherwise.—The regiment was greatly reduced in their number.—Society is not always answerable for the conduct of their members.—The committee were divided in its opinions.—The public are informed that its interests are secured.

(737) The earth is my mother ; I will recline on its bosom.—That freedom, in its fearless flight, may here announce its glorious reign.—Policy keeps coining truth in its mints, such truth as it can tolerate, and every die, except its own, it breaks and casts away.—As time advances, it leaves behind him the traces of its flight.

(738) Though you are great, yet consider thou art a man.—Care for thyself, if you would have others to care for you.—If thou wert not my superior, I would reprove you.—If thou forget thy friend, can you expect that your friend will remember thee ?

(739) One man may do a kindness to another, though he is his enemy.—John gave his friend a present which he highly valued.

(741) I and my father were invited.—An invitation was sent to me and George.—You and I and James were to be of the party ; but neither I nor you nor he can go.

TH RELATIVE AND ITS ANTECEDENT.

742. Rule V.—*The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person*; as, “Thou who speakest.”—“The book which was lost.”

[See Etymology, 255, &c.]

743. The number of the relative can be determined only from the number of the antecedent.

744. Who is applied to persons or things personified (129); as, “The man who”—“The fox who had never seen a lion.”

745. Which is applied to things and inferior animals—sometimes to children—to collective nouns in the singular, implying unity—and also to persons in asking questions.

746. In the translation of the Bible, which is applied to persons; as, “Our Father which art in heaven.”

747. Which applies to a noun denoting a person, when the character, or the name merely as a word, is referred to; as, “He is a good writer, which is all he professes to be.”—“That was the work of Herod, which is but another name for cruelty.”

748. That, as a relative, is used instead of who or which—

1. After adjectives in the superlative degree—after the words *very*, *same*, and *all*—often after *no*, *some*, and *any*—and generally in restrictive clauses (268).
2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, “The man and the horse that we saw.”
3. After the interrogative who, and often after the personal pronouns; as, “Who that knew him could think so?”—“I that speak in righteousness.”
4. Generally when the propriety of who or which is doubtful; as, “The little child that was placed in the midst.”

749. The relatives who or which and that should not be mixed in a series of relative clauses having the same antecedent. Thus it is improper to say, “The man that met us and whom we saw.” It should be, “who met us,” or “that we saw.”

750. The relative refers sometimes to the idea expressed by an adjective, sometimes to the infinitive. But this construction is rare. See examples (256).

751. The relative in the objective case is often omitted; as, “Here is the book I promised you.” The relative in the nominative case is hardly ever omitted except in poetry; as—

“In this, ’tis God—directs, in that, ’tis man.”

752. The antecedent is omitted before what (266), and generally before the compound relatives (273). It is sometimes understood, especially in poetry; as—

“[He] who lives to nature, rarely can be poor.”

753. *What* should not be used for the conjunction *that*. Thus, "I can not believe but *what* it is so," should be, "but *that* it is so." Also the demonstrative *that* should not be used for the relative *what*; as, "We speak *that* we do know," better, "*what* we do know."

POSITION OF THE RELATIVE.

754. The relative is generally placed after its antecedent.

755. To prevent ambiguity, the relative should be placed as near its antecedent as possible, and so that there can be no uncertainty as to what word it refers.

756. In most instances, the sense will be a sufficient guide in this matter; thus, "They removed their wives and children in wagons covered with the skins of animals, *which* formed their simple habitations." Here the sense only can determine to which of the three words *wagons*, *skins*, or *animals*, the relative *which* refers. But—

757. When the antecedent can not be determined by the *sense*, it should be determined by the *position* of the relative, which, as a general rule, should belong to the nearest antecedent. Thus—

"We walked from the house to the *barn* } *which* had been erected."
"We walked to the barn from the *house* }

Here the relative *which*, as determined by its position, refers, in the first sentence, to *barn*, and in the second, to *house*.

758. So also when the antecedents denote the same object, the one being in the subject and the other, in the predicate, the relative takes the person of the one next it; as, "I am the *man who commands you*"—not "*command you*." If the relative refer to *I*, the words should be arranged, "*I who command you am the man*." Hence—

759. A relative clause which modifies the *subject* should not be placed in the *predicate*; thus, "He should not keep a horse that can not ride." should be, "He that can not ride, should not keep a horse."

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In the following sentences, which are the relatives? What is the antecedent to which each refers? Correct those which are wrong, and give the rule, or the reason for the change:—

- (744) Those which seek wisdom will certainly find her.—
 This is the friend which I love.—(745) That is the vice whom I hate.—The tiger is a beast of prey who destroys without pity.—The court who gives currency to such manners should be exemplary.—The nations who have the best rulers are happy.—Your friend is one of the committee who was appointed yesterday.—The family with whom I lived has left the city.—(747) His father set him up as a merchant, who was what he desired to be.—If you intend to be a teacher, who you can not be without learning, you must study.

(748) It is the best situation which can be got.—That man was the first who entered.—This is the same horse which we saw yesterday.—Solomon was the wisest king whom the world ever saw.—The lady and the lapdog, which we saw at the window, have disappeared.—I who speak unto you am he.—No man who respects himself would do so mean an action.

(749) O Thou who hast preserved us, and that wilt still preserve us!—The man whom we met to-day, and that was at our house yesterday, is the same—O Thou that art, and who wast, and that art to come!

(752) I have sent everything what you ordered.—All who-soever came were made welcome.—Everything whatsoe'er ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them.—He who-ever steals my purse steals trash.—(753) I can not believe but what you have been sick.—It is not impossible but what you are mistaken.

(755) The king dismissed his minister without inquiry, who had never before committed so unjust an action.

(759) He needs no spectacles that can't see, nor boots that can not walk.—Those must not expect the sympathy of the diligent, who spend their time in idleness.

760. RULE VI.—*The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative; as, “I am”—“Thou art”—“He is”—“They are”—“Time flies.”—“The letter is written.”*

761. A finite verb is a verb in the indicative, potential, subjunctive, or imperative mood. It is called *finite*, because in these parts it is limited by person and number. In the infinitive and participles, it is not so limited.

762. The subject of a finite verb (315) may be a noun, a pronoun, an infinitive mood (394), a participle used as a noun (462), or a clause of a sentence (636). All these, when the subject of the verb, are regarded as substantives in the *nominative* (109 and 867).

763. Every *nominative*, not *absolute* (769), or in *apposition* (668), or in the *predicate* (796), is the subject of a verb, expressed or understood.

764. The following sentence is wrong, because the nominative *who* has no verb to which it is the nominative, viz.: These evils were caused by Catiline, *who*, if he had been punished, the republic would not have been exposed to so great dangers.” Better—“If Catiline, *by whom* these evils were caused, had been punished,” &c. Hence—

765. It is improper to use both a noun and its pronoun as the nominative to the same verb; thus, "The *king he* is just," should be, "The king is just." Except when the compound pronouns are added to the subject for the sake of emphasis (249); as, "The king *himself* has come."

766. The nominative, especially in the answer to a question, and after *than* or *as*, often has the verb understood; as, "Who said so?"—"He [said so]."—"James is taller than *I* [am]; but not so tall as *you* [are]."

POSITION OF THE SUBJECT.

767. The subject is commonly placed before the verb. But in imperative or interrogative sentences, and in sentences inserted for the sake of emphasis or euphony, the subject is often placed after the verb; as, "Go thou."—"Did *he* go?"—"May *you* be happy!"—"Were *I* he."—"Neither did *they*."—"Said *I*."—"There was *a man*," &c.

Under this rule there is liability to error only in the use of pronouns, and in leaving a nominative without its verb.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

Which nouns or pronouns in the following sentences are the subject of a verb? If not in the proper case, change them, and give the rule, or reason for the changes:

(760) Him and me are of the same age.—Suppose you and me go.—Them are excellent.—Whom do you think has arrived?—Them that seek wisdom shall find it.—You and us enjoy many privileges.

(766) John is older than me.—You are as tall as her.—Who has a knife? Me.—Who came in? Her and him.—You can write as well as me.—That is the boy whom we think deserves the prize.

(765) Virtue, however it may be neglected for a time, yet men are so constituted as to respect genuine merit.

THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE OR INDEPENDENT.

768. RULE VII.—*A substantive whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative absolute.*

NOTE.—The nominative under this rule, is usually called the *nominative absolute* or *independent*; because, in English, though always in the form of the nominative, yet it has no grammatical dependence on any word in the sentence. This occurs in all examples under the following—

SPECIAL RULES.

769. RULE 1.—*A substantive with a participle, whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative; as, "He being gone, only two remain."*

770. In this construction, the substantive is sometimes understood ; as, "His conduct, viewing it even favorably, can not be commended ;" that is, "we [a person] viewing it," &c.

771. Sometimes *being* and *having been* are omitted ; as, "Her wheel [being] at rest"—"He destroyed or won," &c., that is, "He having been destroyed or won," &c.—"This said," that is, "This being said."

772. In this construction, the substantive with the participle is used to express an assumed fact in an abbreviated form, and is equivalent to a dependent clause, connected by *when*, *while*, *if*, *since*, *because*, &c. (650) ; as, "He having gone, his brother returned ;" = "Since or because he went, his brother returned."

773. RULE 2.—*A person or thing addressed, without a verb or governing word, is put in the nominative* ; as, "I remain, dear sir, yours truly"—"Plato, thou reasonest well."

774. RULE 3.—*A substantive, unconnected in mere exclamation, is put in the nominative* ; as, "O, the times ! O, the manners !"

775. RULE 4.—*A substantive, used by pleonasm (1044, 2) before an affirmation, is put in the nominative* ; as, "The boy, oh ! where was he ?"—"Your fathers, where are they ?—the prophets, do they live forever ?"

Under this rule, a mistake can be made only in the case of pronouns.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

Point out the noun or pronoun whose case depends on no other word —put it in the case required by the rule, and give the special rule requiring it.

Me being absent, the business was neglected.—He made as wise proverbs as any body, him only excepted.—All enjoyed themselves very much, us excepted.—Whom being dead, we shall come.

Whose gray top
Shall tremble, him descending.
The bleating sheep with my complaints agree ;
Them parched with heat, and me inflamed by thee.
Her quick relapsing to her former state.
Then all thy gifts and graces we display,
Thee, only thee, directing all our way.

THE VERB AND ITS NOMINATIVE.

776. RULE VIII.—*A verb agrees with its nominative in number and person* ; as, "I read," "Thou readest," "He reads," "We read," &c.

[Respecting the nominative or subject, see (493). This rule, and the special rules under it, apply to an infinitive mood or clause of a sentence, when the subject of a verb (762), as well as to nouns and pronouns.]

REMARK.—*Impersonal verbs* (520) are always in the third person singular; as, “*It hails*,” “*it rains*,” &c. Such expressions as “*it appears*,” “*it seems*,” “*it happens*,” and the like, sometimes called impersonal verbs, are really personal, having for their subject an infinitive mood or substantive phrase following, to which “*it*” preceding refers; as, “*It appears* that the river is rising.”—“*It seems to be so.*” See 246, 4. So also, in the expression *as follows*, *as concerns*, *as appears*, and the like, the verb is not impersonal; but whether singular or plural, refers to a subject understood; as, “*The case was as follows*,” i.e., as *it* here *follows*; “*The conditions were as follow*,” i.e., were as *they* here *follow*, or as those which *follow*.

SPECIAL RULES.

777. RULE 1.—*A singular noun used in a plural sense, has a verb in the plural*; as, “*Ten sail are in sight*” (160).

778. RULE 2.—*Two or more substantives, singular, taken together, have a verb in the plural*; as, “*James and John are here*.”

779. Substantives taken together are connected by *and*, expressed or understood (955), as in the example above.

780. A singular nominative and an objective connected by *with* sometimes have a plural verb; as, “*The ship with the crew were lost*.” This construction is incorrect, and should not be imitated. A mere adjunct of a substantive does not change its number or construction. Either, then, the verb should be singular, “*The ship with the crew was lost*,” or, if the second substantive is considered as belonging to the subject, it should be connected by *and*; as, “*The ship and the crew were lost*.” But,

781. When substantives connected by *and*, denote one person or thing, the verb is singular; as, “*Why is dust and ashes proud?*”—“*The saint, the father, and the husband, prays*.”—*Burns*.

782. Singular nouns, preceded by *each*, *every*, *no*, though connected by *and*, have the verb in the singular; as, “*Each book and each paper was arranged*”—“*Every paper and every book was arranged*”—“*No book and no paper was arranged*.”

783. When a verb, having several nominatives connected by *and*, is placed after the first, it agrees with that, and is understood to the rest; as,

“Forth in the pleasing spring,
Thy beauty walks, thy tenderness, and love.”—*Thompson*.

784. When the substantives connected are of different persons, the verb in the plural prefers the *first* to the *second*, and the *second* to the *third*. This can be perceived only in the pronoun (730-1).

785. RULE 3.—*Two or more substantives singular, taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest, have a verb in the singular*; as,

"James or John attends"—"Neither James nor John attends"—"John, and not [but not] James, attends"—"John, as well as James, attends"—"Not John, but James attends."

786. Nouns taken *separately*, are connected by *or, nor, as well as, and also*, &c. A noun taken so as to *exclude* others, is connected with them by such phrases as *and not, but not, not*, &c. In such, the verb agrees with the subject affirmed of, and is understood with the others.

NOTE.—Singular nouns connected by *nor*, sometimes have a plural verb. In that case, the verb denies equally of all, and *nor* is equivalent to *and*, connecting the nouns, and a negative which is transferred to, and modifies the verb; as, "Neither Moses, nor Minos, nor Solon, nor Lycurgus, were eloquent men."—*Acton*.—"Moses, and Minos, and Solon, and Lycurgus, were not eloquent men," or, "were none of them eloquent." This construction has not been generally noticed, but it often occurs in the best writers.

787. But when two or more substantives, taken separately, are of different numbers, the verb agrees with the one next it, and the plural subject is usually placed next the verb; as, "Neither the captain nor the sailors *were* saved;" rarely, "Neither the sailors nor the captain *was* saved."

788. RULE 4.—*When substantives, taken separately, are of different persons, the verb agrees with the one next it*; as, "James or I am in the wrong"—"Either you or he is mistaken"—"I or thou art to blame."

789. Though sentences are often formed according to this rule, yet they are generally harsh and inelegant. It is generally better to put the verb with the first substantive, and repeat it with the second; or to express the same idea by arranging the sentence differently; as, "James *is* in the wrong or I *am*," or "One of us *is* in the wrong"—"Either you *are* mistaken or he *is*"—"I *am* to blame, or thou *art*." This remark is sometimes applicable also, when the substantives are of the same person, but different in number, and requiring each a different form of the verb; as, "Either the captain or the sailors *were* to blame;" otherwise, "Either the captain *was* to blame, or the sailors *were*."

790. RULE 5.—1. *A collective noun, expressing many, as ONE WHOLE, has a verb in the singular*; as, "The company *was* large."

791.—2. *But when a collective noun expresses many, as individuals, the verb must be plural*; as, "My people *do not consider*."

792. It is sometimes difficult to determine whether a collective noun expresses *unity* or *plurality*. It is now considered generally best to use the plural, where the singular is not *manifestly* required.

793. A nominative after "many a" has a verb in the singular; as, "Full many a flower *is born*," &c. (735).

794. Two or more verbs connected in the same construction as a compound predicate (627) have the same nominative; as, "James *reads* and *writes*"—"James *neither reads nor writes*."

795. But when verbs are not connected in the same construction, each verb should have its own nominative. The following sentence is wrong

in this respect; "The whole is produced as an illusion of the first class, and hopes it will be found worthy of patronage;" it should be, either "He produces the whole as an illusion," &c., "and *hopes*," &c.; or, "The whole is produced," &c., "and he *hopes*," &c., or, "and it is hoped," &c.

For the POSITION of the verb and its subject see (767), and also (741).

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

What is a verb in each of the following sentences? What is its subject? See if they agree. If they do, give the rule and show how it applies. If they do not, change the verb so as to agree with its nominative, and give the rule. Thus, *loves* should be *love*, to agree with *I*, in the first person, singular. Rule—"A verb agrees," &c. (776).

(776) I loves reading.—A soft answer turn away wrath.—We is but of yesterday, and knows nothing.—The days of man is as grass.—Thou sees how little has been done.—He dare not act otherwise.—Fifty pounds of wheat produces forty pounds of flour.—A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.—So much of ability and merit are seldom found.—A judicious arrangement of studies facilitate improvement.—Was you there?—Circumstances alters cases.—There is sometimes two or three of us.—I, who are first, has the best claim.—The derivation of these words are uncertain.—Much does human pride and folly require correction.—To do good unto others are the duty of all.—To be ignorant of such things are now inexcusable.—(482) She needs not trouble herself.

(777) Forty head of cattle was sold in one hour.—The horse was sent forward to engage the enemy.—The foot, in the meantime, was preparing for an attack.—Fifty sail was seen approaching the coast.—Two dozen is as many as you can take.—One pair was spoiled; five pair was in good condition.

(778) Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains.—Life and death is in the power of the tongue.—Anger and impatience is always unreasonable.—Out of the same mouth proceedeth blessing and cursing.—Idleness and ignorance produces many vices.—Temperance and exercise preserves health.—Time and tide waits for no man.—Our welfare and security consists in unity.—To profess regard and to act differently marks a base mind.—To be good and to seem good is different things.—To do good and to shun evil is equally our duty.

(781) That able scholar and critic have died.—Your friend and patron, who were here yesterday, have called again to-day.

(782) Every leaf, and every twig, and every drop of water, teem with life.—Every man and every woman were searched.

—Each day, and hour, and moment, are to be diligently improved.—No wife, no mother, no child, soothe his cares.—No oppressor, no tyrant, triumph there.

(785) Either the boy or the girl were present.—Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example.—Our happiness or misery depend much upon our own conduct.—When sickness, infirmity, or misfortune, affect us, the sincerity of friendship is tried.—Neither ability nor inclination are wanting.—A man's being rich, or his being poor, do not affect his character for integrity.—To do good or to get good are equally neglected by the foolish.

(786) His time, as well as his money and health, were lost in the undertaking.—He, and not we, are to blame.—James, and also his brother, have embarked for the gold region.—Books, not pleasure, occupies his mind.—He, and not they, are mistaken.

(787) Neither the scholars nor the teacher was present.—Whether the subjects or the king is responsible, makes no difference.

(788) Either he or I are willing to go.—Neither thou nor he art of age.—You or your brother are blamed.—Neither James nor I has had a letter this week.—Either Robert or his sons has met with great losses.—Thou, or he, or John, art the author of that letter.

(790) Stephen's party were entirely broken up.—The meeting were large and respectable.—The people often rejoices in that which will prove their ruin.—The British parliament are composed of lords and commons.—Congress consist of a senate and house of representatives.—Never were any nation so infatuated.—The noble army of martyrs praiseth thee, O God!—A great number of women were present.—The public is respectfully informed.—The audience was much pleased.—The council was not unanimous.—Congress have adjourned.

While still the busy world is treading o'er
The paths they trod five thousand years before.

(793) Many a one have tried to be rich, but in vain.—Many a broken ship have come to land.

(795) The letter from which the extract was taken, and came by mail, is lost.—It was proposed by the president to fit out an expedition, and has accomplished it.—Our friend brought two loads to market, and were sold at a good price.

THE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE, &c.

796. Rule IX.—*The predicate substantive, after a verb, is put in the same case as the subject before it; as—*

“It is *I*”—“He shall be called *John*”—“She walks a *queen*”—“I took it to be *him*”—“He seems to be a *scholar*”—“The opinion is, that he will live.” Hence—

NOTE.—As the subject of a verb can be only in the nominative (760), or objective (872) the predicate substantive can be only in the nominative or objective.

797. Any verb may be the copula between the subject and the predicate substantive, except a transitive verb in the active voice. But those most commonly used in this way are the verbs *to be*, *to become*, *to seem*, *to appear*; intransitive verbs of *motion*, *position*, &c., and passive verbs, denoting *to call*, *name*, *style*, *appoint*, *choose*, *make*, *esteem*, *reckon*, &c.

798. The predicate substantive after a verb may be anything that can be the subject of a verb (762).

799. The infinitive without a subject, or the participle of a copulative verb (604) in a substantive clause, has a predicate substantive after it in the nominative; as,

“To be a *foreigner* is a disadvantage.”

“He was not known to be a *foreigner*.”

“His being a *foreigner* was not known.”

“He was suspected of being a *foreigner*.”

“We did not know his being [or, of his being] a *foreigner*.

In all these examples, the word *foreigner* is the predicate nominative after *to be*, or *being*, because these phrases being only abridged dependent clauses (651), the predicate noun remains in the same case after the clause is abridged as it was before. Thus, “He was not known to be a *foreigner*”—“It was not known that he was a *foreigner*.” As, then, in the latter form, *foreigner* is in the nominative under the rule, it remains the same in the abridged form, and so of the other examples. But when we say, “For him to be a *foreigner*,” or, “We did not know him to be a *foreigner*” (396), *him*, in both examples, is the subject of *to be*, and *foreigner* is in the objective, according to the rule.

POSITION.

800. The usual position of the predicate substantive is after the verb, as that of the subject is before it, and this is always the order of construction. But in both the direct and the indirect question, and in inverted sentences, its place is often different; thus, “Who is *he*?”—“We know not who *he* is”—“Is *he* a STUDENT?”—“He is the same THAT *he* was”—“The

dog *it* was that died"—"A man *he* was to all the country dear"—"FEET was *I* to the lame"—"Far other SCENE is *Thrasymentē* now."

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In each of the following sentences, which is the copulative verb?—what is its subject?—what the predicate substantive? Correct where it is wrong, and give the reason for the correction. Thus, *me* is the predicate substantive, and should be *I*, because the subject *it* is in the nominative. Rule—"The predicate," &c.

(796) It is me.—It was me who wrote the letter, and him who carried it to the post-office.—I am sure it could not have been her.—It is them, you said, who deserve most blame.—You would probably do the same thing if you were him.—I understood it to be he.—It may have been him, but there is no proof of it.—If I were him, I would go abroad at once.—I little thought it had been him.—It is not me you are in love with.—Art thou proud yet? Ay, and that I am not thee.

Whom do you think he is?—Who do you think him to be?—Whom do men say that I am?—She is the person who I understood it to be.—He is the man whom you said it was.—Let him be whom he may.—Can you tell whom that man is?—Is it not him whom you thought it was?—Thomas knew not whom it was that called, though quite certain it was not her who we saw yesterday.—Let the same be she who thou hast appointed for thy servant Isaac.—He was not the person whom he affected to be.

THE OBJECTIVE GOVERNED BY VERBS.

801. RULE X.—*A transitive verb in the active voice governs the objective case; as, "We love him."—"He loves us."—"Whom did they send?"*

802. The infinitive mood, a participle used as a noun, or part of a sentence, may be the object of a transitive verb, as well as a noun or pronoun; as, "Boys love to play."—"I know who is there."—"I wish that they were wise."—"You see how few have returned."

SPECIAL RULES.

803. RULE 1.—*An intransitive verb does not govern an objective case* (320, 1). Thus—

"Repenting him of his design," should be, "Repenting of his design." Still, a few anomalies of this kind are to be found; as, "They laughed him to scorn."—"The manliness to look the *subject* in the face."—"Talked the night away."

804. RULE 3.—*Intransitive verbs in a transitive sense* (375) *govern the objective case* (321, 1, 2); as, "He runs a *race*."—"They live a *holy life*."

805. To this usage may be referred such expressions in poetry as the following: "The brooks ran *nectar*"—"The trees wept *gums and balms*"—"Her lips blush deeper *sweets*," &c.

806. To this rule also belongs the objective after *causatives* (375–3); as, "He runs a *stage*."—"John walks his *horse*."—"He works *him* hard," &c. Such expressions, however, as "*Grows corn*," are inelegant, and should be avoided.

807. RULE 3.—*Intransitive verbs to not admit a passive voice, except when used transitively* (375). Thus—

"I am purposed"—"I am perished," should be, "I have purposed"—"I am perishing." But we can say, "My race is *run*," because *run* is used transitively. Such expressions as "I am resolved"—"He is deceased"—"He is retired from business"—"We are determined to go on," &c., though common, are incorrect. It is better to say, "I have resolved"—"He has retired," &c.

808. A transitive verb in the active voice, without an object, either has an object understood, or is used intransitively (323).

809. RULE 4.—*A transitive verb does not admit a proposition after it*; thus, "I must premise with a few observations."—"I will not allow of it." Omit *with* and *of*.

810. RULE 5.—*Verbs signifying to NAME, CHOOSE, APPOINT, CONSTITUTE, and the like, generally govern two objectives, viz., the DIRECT, denoting the person or thing acted upon, and the INDIRECT, denoting the result of the act expressed*; as, "They named him John."—"The people elected him president."—"They made it a book."

811. In such sentences, when the verb is in the passive voice, the direct object of the active form is made the subject of the passive, and the indirect remains as the predicate nominative after the verb, according to Rule IX. Thus, "He was named John."—"He was elected president."—"It was made a book."

812. Besides the direct or immediate object in the objective case, some verbs have a *remote object* between the *immediate* and the verb, governed by a preposition understood; as, "John gave *me* a *book*." But when the remote object comes last, the preposition must be expressed; as, "John gave a *book* to *me*." The verbs thus used are such as signify to *ask, teach, offer, promise, give, pay, tell, allow, deny*, and some others.

813. These verbs properly take the immediate object of the active

voice as the subject in the passive, and the remote object remains in the objective after the passive, governed by a preposition expressed or understood; as, "A book was promised *me* or to *me*." (811).

814. In loose composition, however, the *remote* object is sometimes made the subject, and the *immediate* object remains in the objective case after the passive voice; as, "I was promised a *book*." The verbs *ask* and *teach* frequently have this double construction in the passive, but in general the regular construction is better.

Similar to this are certain expressions sufficiently correct in the active form, but which are anomalous, and cannot be analyzed in the form usually but incorrectly given to them in the passive: Thus, *Active*—"They took possession of the farm." Passive (incorrectly) "The farm was taken possession of by them."—(correctly) "Possession of the farm was taken by them." This anomaly arises from inadvertently making the object of the preposition, (*farm*,) instead of the object of the verb in the active voice, (*possession*,) the subject of the verb in the passive. Such anomalies are the following: "The circumstance was made use of." "The ship was lost sight of."—"The occasion was taken advantage of." Either the regular passive form of expression should be used, or, if that be awkward, a different form of expression should be chosen.

POSITION.

815. As the nominative and the objective case of nouns are alike, the arrangement of the sentence should clearly distinguish the one case from the other. The nominative generally *precedes* the verb, and the objective *follows* it. Thus, "Brutus killed Cæsar." If one (or both) of these should be a pronoun, the order may be varied without obscuring the sense, and sometimes the objective is rendered more emphatic by being placed *first*; as, "Him he slew."

816. When the objective is a relative or an interrogative pronoun, it precedes both the verb and its nominative; as, "The man *whom* we saw is dead."—"Whom did you send?"

817. The objective should not, if possible, be separated from its verb by intervening clauses. Thus, "We could not *discover*, for the want of proper tests, the *quality* of the metal." Better. "We could not, for want of proper tests, *discover the quality* of the metal."

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In the following sentences, correct the errors according to the rule, and give a reason for the change. Parse the sentences corrected. Thus, I should be *me*, because governed by *loves*. Rule, X, "A transitive verb," &c. —

(801) He loves I.—He and they we know, but who art thou?—She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.—Ye only have I known.—He who committed the offence thou shouldst correct, not I who am innocent.—They that honor me I will

honor.—Who do you think I saw yesterday?—Who did he marry?—She who we met at the Springs last summer.—Who, having not seen, we love.—Who should I meet the other day but my old friend?—Who dost thou take to be such a coward?

(803) You will have reason enough to repent you of your foolish conduct.—They did not fail to enlarge themselves on the subject.—Go, flee thee away into the land of Judea.—Hasten thee home.—Sit thee down and rest thee.

(807) Several persons were entered into a conspiracy.—Fifty men are deserted from the army.—I am purposed that I will not sin.—He is almost perished with cold.—I am reslved to go.—He is retired to his room.—The plague was then entirely ceased.—Is your father returned? He was not returned an hour ago.

(809) No country will allow of such a practice.—False accusation can not diminish from his real merit.—His servants ye are, to whom ye obey.—He ingratiates with some by traducing others.—They shall not want for encouragement. We do not want for anything.—Covet earnestly for the best gifts.

Change the following into the regular form, and give a reason for the change:—

(813) I was promised a pension.—He was offered a pardon.—She would not accept the situation, though she was offered it.—I was paid a dollar for my services.—I was given a book of great value.—The commissioner was denied access.

(817) Becket could not better discover, than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain his right.—The troops pursued, without waiting to rest, the enemy to their gates.

THE OBJECTIVE GOVERNED BY PREPOSITIONS.

818. RULE XI.—*A preposition governs the objective case; as, “To whom much is given, of him much shall be required.”*

819. The object of a preposition is sometimes an infinitive mood—a participle used as a noun—part of a sentence—a phrase, or dependent clause, as well as a noun or pronoun; as, “He is ABOUT to depart.”—“AFTER we came.”—“ON receiving his diploma.”—“Much depends on who are his advisers.”

820. As a general rule, it is considered inelegant to connect either an active transitive verb and a preposition, or two prepositions with the same object. Thus, “I wrote to and warned him.” Better, “I wrote to

him and warned him." So, "*Of him, and through him, and to him,* are all things." Not *of, and through, and to him,*" &c.

821. This general rule is so little regarded, even by the best writers, that it is a matter of doubt whether it should any longer retain a place in our grammars. In many instances, at least, the form of speech condemned by the rule is clearly better in respect of perspicuity, brevity, and strength, than that which it recommends, and in such cases it should be adopted. In some cases, again, as in the above example, the full form is better than the elliptical. In this matter, every one must be guided by his taste and judgement, avoiding equally obscurity and harshness.

822. When the prépositions *to, at, in*, stand before names of places, the following usage should be carefully observed, viz.:—

1. *To*—is used after a verb of motion toward ; as, "He went *to* Spain." But it is omitted before *home* ; as, "Go *home*."
2. *At*—is used before names of *houses, villages, towns, and foreign cities* ; as, "He resides *at* the Mansion House."—"At Saratoga Springs."—"At Lisbon."
3. *In*—is used before names of *countries and large cities* ; as, "He lives *in* England"—"*in* London"—"*in* New York." But *at* is used before the names of places and large cities after the verbs *touch, arrive, land*, and frequently after the verb *to be* ; as, "We touched *at* Liverpool, and, after a short passage, landed *at* New Orleans."—"I was *at* New York."
4. In speaking of one's residence in a city, *at* is used before the *No.*, and *in* before the *street* ; as, "He resides *at* No.—."—"He lives *in* State street." When both are mentioned together, the preposition is commonly understood before the last ; as, "He lives *at* No. —, State street," or "He lives *in* State street, No. —."

823. The preposition is frequently understood as follows :—

1. A preposition expressed with the first noun or pronoun of a series, may be understood to the rest ; as, "Be kind to *John and James and Mary*."
2. When the remote object of a verb, governed by a preposition, is placed between the verb and its immediate object, the preposition is often omitted ; as, "Give *me* your hand."—"Bring *me* a chair."—"Get *me* a book." (812).
3. *To* is commonly omitted after *like, near, nigh* ; as, "Like his father."—"Near a river," &c. ; and *of* frequently after *worthy* and *unworthy*.

824. Sometimes the antecedent term of a preposition, and sometimes the subsequent (539), is omitted. Thus, the *antecedent* : "[*I say*] in a word."—"All shall know me [*reckoning*] from the least to the greatest." The *subsequent* : "There is a man I am acquainted with"—that is, *with whom* I am acquainted. The *subsequent* is always omitted when it is the indefinite antecedent to which a compound relative refers (273) : as, "Give it to whoever will take it."

825. The phrases, *in vain, in secret, at first, at last, in short, on high*, and the like, may either be parsed together as adverbs, or the noun may

be supplied, and each word parsed separately; as, "In a vain *manner*. — "In a secret *place*," &c.

826. Adverbs representing adverbial phrases ending with a preposition, govern a noun following, in the objective; as, "*Maugre hell*," that is, "*in spite of hell*."—*Milton*.

827. Though words denoting *weight*, *measure*, &c., are evidently governed by a preposition, yet, as it is for the most part understood, it is better to dispose of such cases by the following—

SPECIAL RULE.

828. Rule.—*Nouns denoting TIME, VALUE, WEIGHT or MEASURE, are commonly put in the objective case, without a governing word* (165, 3); as,

"He was absent six *months* last *year*."—"It cost a *shilling*."—"It is not worth a *cent*."—"It weighs a *pound*."—"The wall is six feet high, and two feet thick."

This may be called the objective of *time*, *value*, *weight*, &c., as the case may be.

829. Nouns denoting *time how long* are generally without a preposition; as, "He is ten *years* old." All nouns denoting time *when*, in a general or indefinite way; as, "He came last *week*." But nouns denoting the time *when*, definitely or with precision, generally have the preposition expressed; as, "He came last week, *on Wednesday, in the evening*."

POSITION.

830. Prepositions should be placed before the words which they govern, and as near to them as possible; but never before *that* as a relative.

831. *Whom* and *which* are sometimes governed by a preposition at some distance after them; this, however, should be avoided as much as possible. Thus, "That is the man *whom* I gave the letter *to*." Generally better thus—"to *whom* I gave the letter."

832. The preposition with its regimen (539) should be placed as near as possible to the word to which it is related.

833. Under this rule, there is liability to error only in the use of *pronouns* and with regard to *position* (130).

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In each of the following sentences, point out the preposition, and the word governed by it. Correct the errors, and give a reason for the change. Parse the sentences when corrected:—

(818) To who will you give that pen?—That is a small matter between you and I.—He came along with James and I.—

He gave the book to some one, I know not who.—(831) Who does it belong to?—The book which I read that story in is lost.

(822) I have been to Boston.—They live in Saratoga Springs.—We touched in Liverpool on our way for New York.—He has been to home for some days.—He lives at Hudson street, in No. 42.—We remained in a village in the vicinity of London.

(823) Be so good as lend to me your grammar.—Get to him a book like that.—Ask of me that question again.—This has taught to me a lesson which I will always be mindful of.—Pay to me what you owe to me.—I shall be pleased to do to him a kindness.—Will you do to me a favor?

(830) The nature of the undertaking was such as to render the progress very slow of the work.—Beyond this period the arts can not be traced of civil society.

(832) The wrong position of the preposition and its regimen often produces very ludicrous sentences. The following are a specimen:—

Wanted a young man to take care of some horses, of a religious turn of mind.—The following verses were written by a young man who has long lain in the grave, for his own amusement.—A public dinner was given to the inhabitants, of roast beef and plum pudding.—I saw that the kettle had been scoured, with half an eye.—He rode to town, and drove twelve cows, on horseback.—The man was digging a well, with a Roman nose.

834. RULE XII.—*Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions.*

The following list may be useful for reference:—

Abhorrence <i>of.</i>	Adjudge <i>to.</i>
Abound <i>in, with.</i>	Admonish <i>of.</i>
Abridge <i>from.</i>	Address <i>to.</i>
Absent <i>from.</i>	Admission (access) <i>to.</i>
Access <i>to.</i>	Admission (entrance) <i>into.</i>
Accommodate <i>to.</i>	Advantage <i>over, of.</i>
Accord <i>with.</i>	Affinity <i>to, with.</i>
Accuse <i>of.</i>	Affection <i>for.</i>
Acquaint <i>with.</i>	Agree <i>with a person; to a proposition from another; upon a thing among themselves.</i>
Acquit <i>of.</i>	Agreeable <i>to.</i>
Acquiesce <i>in.</i>	Allude <i>to.</i>
Adapted <i>to.</i>	Alter <i>to, alteration in,</i>
Adequate <i>to.</i>	
Adhere <i>to.</i>	

Amerce <i>in.</i>	Convict of a crime; <i>in</i> a penalty.
Annex <i>to.</i>	Copy <i>after</i> a person; <i>from</i> a thing.
Analogy <i>to, with.</i>	Correspond (to be consistent) <i>with</i> ;
Antipathy <i>to, against.</i>	(answering or suitable) <i>to.</i>
Approve <i>of.</i>	Correspondence <i>with.</i>
Array <i>with, in.</i>	Cured <i>of.</i>
Arrive <i>at.</i>	Debar <i>from.</i>
Ascendant <i>over.</i>	Defend (others) <i>from;—(ourselves)</i>
Ask <i>of a person; for a thing; after</i> what we wish to hear of.	<i>against.</i>
Aspire <i>to, after.</i>	Demand <i>of.</i>
Associate <i>with, seldom to.</i>	Denounce <i>against</i> a person.
Assent <i>to.</i>	Depend, dependent <i>upon, on.</i>
Assure <i>of.</i>	Deprive <i>of.</i>
Attain <i>to.</i>	Derogate <i>from, derogatory to.</i>
Averse <i>to, from.</i>	Derogation <i>from, of.</i>
Banish <i>from, to.</i>	Despair <i>of.</i>
Believe <i>in, sometimes on.</i>	Despoil <i>of.</i>
Bereft <i>of.</i>	Devolve <i>on.</i>
Bestow <i>upon, on.</i>	Die, perish <i>of</i> a disease; <i>by</i> an in-
Betray <i>to a person; into a thing.</i>	strument, or violence; <i>for</i> an-
Boast <i>of.</i>	other.
Bind <i>to, in.</i>	Differ, different <i>from.</i>
Blush <i>at.</i>	Difficulty <i>in.</i>
Border <i>upon, on.</i>	Diminish <i>from, diminution of.</i>
Call <i>on a person; at a place.</i>	Disabled <i>from.</i>
Capacity <i>for.</i>	Disagree <i>with</i> a person; <i>to</i> a pro-
Careful <i>of, in.</i>	posal.
Catch <i>at.</i>	Disagreeable <i>to.</i>
Change (exchange) <i>for; (alter) to,</i> <i>into.</i>	Disappointed <i>of</i> what we do not get;
Charge <i>on a person; with a thing.</i>	<i>in</i> what does not answer when
Compare <i>with, in respect of quality;</i> <i>to, by way of illustration.</i>	got.
Comply, compliance <i>with.</i>	Disapprove <i>of.</i>
Composed <i>of.</i>	Discourage <i>from; discouragement</i>
Concede <i>to.</i>	<i>to.</i>
Concur <i>with a person; in a meas-</i> <i>ure; to an effect.</i>	Disgusted <i>at, with.</i>
Condescend <i>to.</i>	Dispose <i>of; disposed (adj.) to.</i>
Confer <i>on, upon.</i>	Dispossess <i>of.</i>
Confide <i>in.</i>	Disqualify <i>for.</i>
Conformable, conformity <i>to, with.</i>	Dissent <i>from.</i>
Congenial <i>to.</i>	Distinct <i>from.</i>
Congratulate <i>upon, on.</i>	Divested <i>of.</i>
Consonant <i>to.</i>	Divide <i>between two; among more.</i>
Consist (to be composed) <i>of; (to be</i> <i>comprised) in.</i>	Eager <i>in, on, of, for, after.</i>
Consistent <i>with.</i>	Embark <i>in.</i>
Contrast <i>with.</i>	Employ <i>in, on, about.</i>
Conversant <i>with men; in things;</i> <i>about and among</i> are less proper.	Enamoured <i>with.</i>
	Encroach <i>upon, on.</i>
	Endeavor <i>after a thing.</i>
	Engage <i>in a work; for a time.</i>
	Enjoin <i>upon.</i>
	Entrance <i>into.</i>
	Equal <i>to, with.</i>

Equivalent to.	Intrude <i>into</i> a place enclosed; <i>upon</i> a person, or a thing not enclosed.
Espouse to.	Inured to.
Estimated at.	Invested with, <i>in</i> .
Exception from, to.	Lame of.
Exclude, exclusion from.	Level with.
Exclusive of.	Long for, after.
Expelled from.	Look on what is present; <i>for</i> what is absent; <i>after</i> what is distant
Expert at (before a noun); <i>in</i> (before an active participle).	Made of.
Fall under disgrace; <i>from</i> a tree; <i>into</i> a pit; <i>to</i> work; <i>upon</i> an enemy.	Made much of.
Familiar to, <i>with</i> ; a thing is familiar to us—we <i>with</i> it.	Marry to.
Fawn upon, <i>on</i> .	Martyr for.
Followed by.	Militate against.
Fond of.	Mistrustful of.
Foreign to, sometimes from.	Need of.
Founded upon, <i>on</i> , <i>in</i> .	Obedient to.
Free from.	Object to, against.
Fruitful in.	Observance, observation of.
Full of.	Obtrude upon, <i>on</i> .
Glad of something gained by ourselves; <i>at</i> something that befalls another.	Occasion for.
Grateful to a person; <i>for</i> favors.	Offensive, to.
Hanker after.	Operate upon, <i>on</i> .
Hinder from.	Opposite, opposition to.
Hold of; as, "Take hold of me."	Partake of; participate of, <i>in</i> .
Impose upon.	Penetrate into.
Incorporate (active transitive) <i>into</i> ; (intransitive or passive) <i>with</i> .	Persevere in.
Inculeate on.	Pitch upon.
Independent of.	Poor in.
Indulge with a thing not habitual; in a thing habitual.	Prefer to, over, above.
Indulgent to.	Preference to, over.
Influence on, over, with.	Preferable to.
Inform of, about, concerning.	Prefix to.
Initiate into a place; <i>in</i> an art.	Prejudice against.
Inquire.—(See ask.)	Preside over.
Inroad into.	Prevent from.
Inseparable from.	Prevail (to persuade) with, <i>on</i> , <i>upon</i> ; (to overcome) over, against.
Insinuate into.	Prey on, upon.
Insist upon.	Productive of.
Instruct in.	Profit by.
Inspection (prying) <i>into</i> ; (superintendence) over.	Protect others from; ourselves ag'nst.
Intent upon, <i>on</i> .	Pronounce against a person; <i>on</i> a thing.
Interfere with.	Provide with, for.
Intervene between.	Proud of.
Introduce into a place; <i>to</i> a person.	Purge of, away.
	Quarrel with.
	Reckon on, upon.
	Reconcile (to friendship) to; (to make consistent) with.

Reducee (subdue) <i>under</i> ; (in other cases) <i>to</i> .	Submit <i>to</i> . Sent <i>to</i> .
Reflect <i>upon, on</i> .	Swerve <i>from</i> .
Regard <i>for</i> ; in regard <i>to</i> .	Taste <i>of</i> , means actual enjoyment; —taste <i>for</i> , means capacity or genius <i>for</i> .
Rely <i>upon, on</i> .	Tax <i>with</i> (for example, a crime, an act); <i>for</i> (a purpose, a state).
Replete <i>with</i> .	Thankful <i>for</i> .
Reproached <i>for</i> .	Think <i>of, on</i> .
Resemblance <i>to</i> .	Touch <i>at</i> .
Resolve <i>on</i> .	Unite (transitive) <i>to</i> ; (intransitive) <i>with</i> .
Respect <i>to</i> ; in respect <i>to, of</i> .	Unison <i>with, to</i> .
Restore <i>to</i> .	Useful <i>for</i> .
Rich <i>in</i> .	Value <i>upon, on</i> .
Rob <i>of</i> .	Vest, before the possessor, <i>in</i> ; before the possessed, <i>with</i> .
Rule <i>over</i> .	Wait <i>upon, on</i> .
Share <i>in, of</i> .	Witness <i>of</i> .
Sick <i>of</i> .	Worthy, unworthy <i>of</i> . But after these, <i>of</i> is generally omitted.
Significant <i>of</i> .	
Similar <i>to</i> .	
Sink <i>into, beneath</i> .	
Skilful (before a noun) <i>in</i> ; (before a participle) <i>at, in</i> .	
Strain <i>out</i> .	
Strip <i>of</i> .	

835. What preposition it is proper to use, often depends as much upon what follows, as upon what goes before. Thus, "To fall from a height"—"into a pit"—"in battle"—"to work"—"upon an enemy."

836. *Into* is used only after verbs of motion, and implies entrance. *In* is used after verbs of motion or rest, and denotes situation, but never entrance; as, "He went *into* the carriage, and rode *in* it."

837. *Boast, approve, and disapprove*, are often used without a preposition following; so also *worthy* and *unworthy*.

838. The same preposition that follows a verb or adjective, usually follows the noun derived from it, and *vice versa*; as, "Confide *in*"—"Confident *in*"—"Confidence *in*."

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In the following sentences, point out the prepositions and the antecedent term. If not appropriate, correct, and give the rule:—

This remark is founded with truth.—He was eager of recommending him to his fellow-citizens.—I find great difficulty of writing.—Every change is not a change to the better.—Changed for a worse shape it can not be.—It is important, in times of trial, to have a friend to whom you can confide.—You may rely in the truth of what he says.—Many have profited from good advice, but have not always been grateful of it.—I have no occasion of his services.—Favors are not always bestowed to the most deserving.—This is very different to that.—Virtue and vice differ widely with each other.—Come in the house.—We

rode into a carriage with four horses.—The bey fell under a deep pit.—Such conduct cannot be reconciled to your profession.—Go, and be reconciled with thy brother.—A man had four sons, and he divided his property between them.—I am now engaged with that work.—He insists on it that he is right.

THE POSSESSIVE GOVERNED BY SUBSTANTIVES.

839 RULE XIII.—*A substantive that limits the signification of another, must be put in the possessive case; as, "Virtue's reward"—"John's books."*

840. The substantive in the possessive case limits the signification of the other, by representing the thing named as *proceeding from, possessed by, or suitable to* the person or thing expressed by the possessive (165). It is of course necessary, under this rule, that the substantives signify *different things*.

841. A substantive, limited by the possessive, may be any noun in any case, or a verbal noun (462), either alone or with its regimen, or modifying words; as, "On *eagle's wings*."—"He was opposed to *John's writing*."—"I am in favor of a pupil's *composing frequently*" (896).—"John's *having devoted himself too much to study* was the cause of his sickness." (463).

842. The noun limited by the possessive is often understood; as, "This book is *John's [book]*." It is always omitted after the possessive case of the personal pronouns; as, "This book is *mine, thine, ours*," &c., and, in this construction, when supplied, the possessive case must be changed for the possessive pronoun (241); as, "This is *my book, thy book, our book*;" not *mine book, &c.*, (292).

843. The possessive case, and the preposition of with the objective, are often equivalent; as, "My *father's house*"—"The house of my father." But—

844. Sometimes the idea expressed by *of* with the objective, can not be expressed at all by the possessive; as, "A ring of gold"—"A cup of water"—"A piece of land"—"The house of refuge," &c. Sometimes, again, the ideas expressed are different; thus, "The Lord's day" means the sabbath. "The day of the Lord," means the day of judgment. "My father's picture," means a picture belonging to my father. "A picture of my father," means a portrait of him. "God's love," means only the love which God feels. "The love of God," means either the love which God feels to us, or that which we feel to him.

845. *Of*, before a possessive case, followed by the substantive which it limits, usually governs that substantive; as, "The heat of the sun's rays." But *of* before a possessive, *not* followed by the substantive which it limits, governs that substantive understood, and the expression refers to *a part* of the things possessed; as, "A discovery of [that is, from] Sir Isaac Newton's [discoveries];" meaning, "One of Sir Isaac Newton's discoveries" (242).

846. Even when the possessive case, and of with the objective, are equivalent in meaning, the arrangement and euphony, as well as the perspicuity of the sentence, will often render the one expression preferable to the other. When this is the case, care should be taken to use that form which, in the circumstances, is best. Thus, "In the name of the army," is better than, "In the army's name;" "My mother's gold ring," is better than, "The gold ring of my mother." A succession of words in either form is harsh, and may be avoided by a proper mixture of the two; thus, "My brother's wife's sister"—better—"The sister of my brother's wife."—"The sickness of the son of the king"—better—"The sickness of the king's son."

847. When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as "Jane and Lucy's books," that is, books the common property of Jane and Lucy. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, "Jane's and Lucy's books," that is, books, some of which are Jane's, and others Lucy's. "This gained the king's, as well as the people's, approbation."

848. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, "Julius Caesar's Commentaries"—"John the Baptist's head"—"His brother Philip's wife"—"The Bishop of London's charge."—Here *Julius Caesar's* is a complex name, in the possessive; *John* and *brother* are in the possessive, without the sign, that being annexed to the words *Baptist* and *Philip*, in apposition. In the last example, "London" is in the objective case, governed by *of*, and the's annexed properly belongs to *Bishop*, which limits the word *charge*. In parsing the words *separately*, the transfer must, of course be so made. But the true reason for annexing 's to *London* is, that the whole phrase, "Bishop of London," is regarded as *one term*, in the possessive limiting the word *charge*, and may be so parsed. Thus, "a complex noun in the possessive case, limiting the word *charge*."

849. When a short explanatory term is joined to a name, the sign of the possessive may be annexed to either; as, "I called at Smith's the bookseller," or, "at Smith the bookseller's." But if, to such a phrase, the substantive which it limits is added, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the last; as, "I called at Smith the bookseller's shop."

850. If the explanatory circumstance be complex, or consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive must be annexed to the name or first substantive; as, "This Psalm is David's, the king, priest, and prophet of the people."—"That book is Smith's, the bookseller in Maiden Lane."

851. This mode of expression, however, is never elegant, and, though sometimes used when the governing substantive is understood, yet it would be better to avoid it, and say, "This is a psalm of David, the king," &c., or, "This is one of the psalms of David," &c. But an expression like this can not, with any propriety, be used when the substantive limited by the possessive is added. Thus, "David, the king, priest, and prophet of the people's psalm," would be intolerable.

852. When two nouns in the possessive are used to limit different words

the sign of the possessive must be annexed to each; as, "He took refuge at the governor's, the king's representative," that is, "at the governor's house."

853. The *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, when the first word ends, and the following word begins, with an *s*, or when the use of it would occasion a disagreeable repetition of *s* sounds; as, "For righteousness' sake"—"For conscience' sake"—"For Jesus' sake"—"At Jesus' feet" (173). In other cases, such omissions would generally be improper; as, "James' book"—"Miss' shoes," instead of, "James's book"—"Miss's shoes."

854. A clause of a sentence should never come between the possessive case and the word which it limits; thus, "She began to extol the farmer's as she called him, excellent understanding," should be, "the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

855. A noun limited by the possessive plural, or by two or more nouns severally in the possessive singular, should not be plural unless the sense require it. Thus, "The men's health [not healths] suffered from the climate"—"John's and William's wife [not wives] are of the same age."

856. The possessive *whosoever* is sometimes divided by interposing the word which it limits; as, "*whose* house *soever*." This, in general, however, is to be avoided, and to be admitted only when euphony and precision are thereby promoted (277).

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In the following sentences, show which is the limiting substantive, and which is the one limited—where wrong, correct according to the rule or observations.

(839) Virtues reward.—One mans loss is often another mans gain.—Mans chief end is to glorify God.—My ancestors virtue is not mine.—A mothers tenderness and a fathers care are natures gifts for mans advantage.—On eagles wings.—For Christ sake.—For ten sake.—Which dictionary do you prefer.—Webster, Walker, or Johnson?—(172) Asa his heart was perfect.—John Thompson his book.—Lucy Jones her book.

(841) He was averse to the nation involving itself in war.—Much depends on your pupil composing frequently.—He being rich did not make him happy.—I am opposed to him going on such an expedition.

(842) That book is James book, and that one is Roberts.—That knife is your knife, but I thought it was my knife.—My book is old, but your book and Roberts book are new.—Which is the best book, your book or my book?

(845) That landscape is a picture of my father. The work you speak of is one of Irving.—Gravitation was a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton.—That is a ring of my mother.

(846) The world's government is not left to chance.—The tree is known by the fruit of it.—The commons' vote was against the measure, but the lords' vote was in its favor.—The weekly return of the day of the Lord is a blessing to man.—The representatives house is now in session.—The extent of the prerogative of the king of England is well understood.—John's brother's wife's mother is sick.—The severity of the sickness of the son of the king caused great alarm.—Your brothers servant's situation is critical.

(847) William's and Mary's reign.—Cain and Abels sacrifice were not the same.—David and Solomon's reign were prosperous.—John and William's wife are cousins.—Men, women, and childrens shoes for sale.—He cared for his father and also for his mother's interest.—The Betsy and Speedwells cargoes were both saved.

(848) Messrs. Pratt's, Woodford's, & Co.'s bookstore is in New York.—Thompson's & Company's office was on fire.—Jack's the Giant-killer's wonderful exploits.—The bishop's of London's charge to his clergy.—The Grand Sultan's Mahomet's palace.—The secretary's of war report.

(850 & 851) Call at Smith the bookseller and stationer's.—The parcel was left at Johnson, a merchant in Broadway's.—He emulated Cæsar the greatest general of antiquity's bravery.—General Taylor, president of the United States, an excellent man and brave soldier's residence.

(852) That house is Smith the poor man's friend.—We spent an agreeable hour at Wilson, the governor's deputy.—The coach stopped at Mr. Brown, Henry's father.

(853) James father arrived yesterday.—Charles books are completely spoiled.—King James translators merely revised former translations.—For conscience's sake.—For righteousness's sake.

(854) They condemned the judge's in the case of Bardwell decision.—The prisoner's, if I may say so, conduct was shameful.—Peter the Hermit's as he was called, opinion.

(855) All men have talents committed to their charges.—It is the duty of Christians to submit to their lots.—We protest against this course, in our own names and in the names of our constituents.—A father's and mother's loves to their children are very tender.—The gentlcmans and ladys healths are improving.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

857. RULE XIV.—*The subjunctive mood is used in dependent clauses, when both contingency or doubt, and futurity, are expressed; as, “If he continue to study he will improve.”*

858. When contingency or doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the indicative is used; as, “If he *has* money he keeps it.”

859. Contingency or doubt is usually expressed by the connectives, *if*, *though*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, &c.; but whether futurity is implied or not, must be gathered from the context. In general, when the sense is the same, with *shall*, *will*, or *should* prefixed to the verb, as without it, the subjunctive may be used; otherwise, not. Thus, in the preceding example, “If he *continue*,” and, “If he *shall continue*,” mean the same thing.

860. Formerly, the subjunctive was used to express contingency, or doubt, whether futurity was implied or not. Of this, the English Bible furnishes examples in almost every page (See Job xx., 12–14), where present usage would require the indicative. The tendency, at present, is to the other extreme. The present or future indicative, or past potential, is now more generally used instead of the present subjunctive (391), and this has led some grammarians to reject the subjunctive altogether, and to regard what was formerly called the present subjunctive as an elliptical form of the future indicative, or past potential. It appears to be certain, however, that there are forms usually called the present subjunctive, established by the authority of the best writers of every age, not excepting even the present, which can not be disposed of in this way; for example, “It is no matter whether this or that *be* in itself the less or the greater crime.”—*Lillo*. “The question is not whether man *be* a free agent.”—*Hobbes*. “If this *be* an error, it is a harmless one.” In none of these can *shall*, or *will*, or *should*, be introduced, without changing or destroying the sense. In all of them, present usage would substitute *is* for *be*. It will not do, however, for the grammarian to set up a rule, by which established and reputable usage is condemned, though the present taste tends another way. Still, there are cases in which this change is inadmissible (390).

861. *Lest* and *that*, annexed to a command, require the subjunctive mood; as, “Love not sleep, lest thou *come* to poverty”—“Take heed that thou *speak* not to Jacob, either good or bad.” And sometimes without a command; as, “They shall bear thee up, lest thou *dash* thy foot against a stone.”—“Is not this the fast that I have chosen—that thou *bring* the poor to thy house.”

862. *If*, with *but* following it, when futurity is denoted, requires the subjunctive mood; as, “If he *do* but touch the hills, they shall *smoke*.” But when future time is not implied, the indicative is used; as, “If he *does* but whisper, every word is heard distinctly.”

863. The subjunctive mood is used to express a wish or desire; as, "I wish I were at home." "O, that he were wise!"

864. A supposition or wish, implying a present denial of the thing supposed or desired, is expressed by the past subjunctive; as, "If my kingdom were of this world, then would my servants fight," implying, "It is not of this world."—"O, that thou wert as my brother!" implying, "Thou art not" (439-2).

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

What verbs in the following sentences, should, according to the rule, be in the subjunctive mood, and what in the indicative?—correct them accordingly—parse the sentences corrected.

(857) If a man smites his servant and he dies, he shall surely be put to death.—We must go to-morrow, unless it rains.—There will be enough to do next week, if the weather is good.—Though the sky be clear, it is cold.—He will maintain his cause, though he loses his estate.—We may get letters, if the mail arrives in time.—If John be come, why did you not tell me?—If it snows all night, the roads will be impassable.—Ask John if he know when the legislature meets.—If he know any thing, he surely knows, that unless he gets better he can not be removed.—If thou be the Son of God, command that these stones be made bread.

(861) Take care that the horse does not run away.—See that thou dost it not.—Let him that standeth take heed lest he falls.—Kiss the Son, lest he is angry.—Reprove not a scorner, lest he hates thee.

(862) If he is but in health, it will be the cause of great thankfulness.—If he does but run, he will soon overtake them.—If he be but in health, I am content.—O, that he was wise!—I wish I was at home.

(864) If I was not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.—If it was not so, I would have told you.—If he was a year older, I would send him to school.—Was gold more abundant, it would be of less value.—If he was an imposter, he must have been detected.—If I was he, I would accept the offer.—Was I he, I would accept the offer.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

865. RULE XV.—*The infinitive mood is governed by VERBS, NOUNS, or ADJECTIVES; as, "I desire to learn"—"A desire to learn"—"Anxious to learn."*

866. The infinitive is a sort of verbal noun, and has the construction of both a verb and a noun.

867. As a noun, the infinitive may be, 1. The *subject* of a verb, (394); as, “*To play* is pleasant.” 2. The *object* of a verb (802); as, “Boys love *to play*.” 3. The *predicate nominative* after a copulative verb (798); as, “He is to be married.” 4. In *apposition* with another noun (670); as, “Spare, spare your friends the task, *to read*, *to nod*, *to scoff*, *condemn*.” 5. The *object* of a preposition (819); as, “*About to depart*”—“What went ye out *for to see*? ”

868. At the same time that the infinitive is used as a noun, it may have all the modifications of a verb in respect to *time*, *government*, or *adjuncts*, forming, with them, an abridged sentence, or clause or phrase (653); as, “To see the sun at midnight is impossible.” Here, *to see* is modified by its object, *the sun*, and by the adjunct, *at midnight*, and the whole clause is the subject of *is*. Hence the following—

SPECIAL RULES.

869. Rule 1.—*One verb being the subject* (592) *of another, is put in the infinitive*; as, “*To study* is profitable” (872).

870. Rule 2.—*One verb governs another as its object, or complement in the infinitive*; as, “Boys love *to play*”—“They seem *to study*” (319,—630, 4,—802).

871. Verbs which take the infinitive as their *object*, are transitive verbs in the active voice; and the infinitive, either alone, or modified by other words, is equivalent to the objective case (802). Verbs which take the infinitive as their *complement*, that is, in order to *fill out* or complete, as it were, the idea intended, are intransitive or passive verbs, which form a sort of modified copula between their subject and the infinitive following. Thus, “The watch seems *to go*” = “The watch is apparently going” (797).

872. Rule 3.—*The infinitive, as the subject or the object of a verb, sometimes has a subject of its own in the objective case.*

873. In either construction, the infinitive, with its subject, is an abridged dependent clause (653) and when used as the subject, is introduced by *for*. Thus, *Subject*—“For us to do so would be improper,” = “That we should do so would be improper.” *Object*—“I know *him* to be an honest man,” = “I know that *he* is an honest man.” Here the object of *know* is neither *him*, nor *to be*, &c., separately, but the whole clause, “*him* to be an honest man,” taken together, equivalent to, “that *he* is an honest man.”

874. In many such sentences, the subject of the infinitive resembles the direct, and the infinitive itself the indirect object of the preceding verb, as in the construction (810). Hence, when the verb is changed into the passive form, the objective after the active verb (which is also the subject of the infinitive), becomes the nominative to the passive verb, and the infinitive remains after it, like the indirect object (811). Thus, *Active*, “I desired *him* to go.”—*Passive*, “He was desired to go.”

875. RULE 4.—*The infinitive is used as a predicate nominative after any verb as a copula* (597); as, “You are *to blame*” (397).

876. When used as a predicate nominative after the verb *to be*, the infinitive denotes—

1. An equivalent expression; as, “To obey is *to enjoy*.”

2. What is possible or obligatory; as, “Gold is *to be found* in California”—“The laws are *to be observed*.”

3. What is settled and determined upon, and, of course, *future*; as, “The ship is *to sail* to-morrow.”

877. RULE 5.—*To, the sign of the infinitive, is not used after the verbs BID, DARE, NEED, MAKE, SEE, HEAR, FEEL, and LET, in the active voice, nor after LET in the passive*; as, “I saw him do it”—“You need not go”—“He was let go.”

878. To this rule there are some exceptions. As it relates only to euphony and usage, *to* may be inserted when harshness will not thereby be produced; thus, “Conscious that his opinions need *to* be disguised.”—*McKenzie*.

879. For the same reason, *to* is sometimes omitted after the verbs *perceive, behold, observe, have, and know*.

880. When several infinitives come together in the same construction, the sign *to* expressed with the first, is sometimes omitted before those that follow; thus, “It is better to be a king and *die*, than to live and *be* a prince.” This should never be done when either harshness or obscurity would be the result.

881. *To, the sign of the infinitive, should never be used for the infinitive itself.* Thus, “I have not written, and I do not intend *to*,” is a colloquial vulgarism for, “I have not written, and I do not intend *to write*.”

882. RULE 6.—*The infinitive is used to express the PURPOSE, END, or DESIGN of the preceding act*; as, “Some who came *to scoff*, remained *to pray*.” Here, *to scoff* and *to pray* are not governed by *came* and *remained*; but are put without a governing word, to express the *end for which* they came and remained.

883. This construction of the infinitive is sometimes preceded by the phrase, “*in order*;” and formerly was preceded by *for*; as, “What went ye out *for to see*? ” This is now obsolete.

884. RULE 7.—*In comparisons, the infinitive mood is put after so AS, TOO or THAN*; as, “Be so good as *to read* this letter”—“Too old *to learn*”—“Wiser than *to undertake* it.” Some consider this construction as elliptical, and that the infinitive depends on a word understood.

885. The infinitive is sometimes used to assign, in an abridged form the *reason* of that which goes before; as, “Base coward that thou art! *to flee*! ”—“Ungrateful man! *to waste* my fortune, *rob* me of my peace! ” &c.—“Must not one sigh, *to reflect* on so grave a subject.”

886. The infinitive is sometimes put absolutely, without a governing word ; as, " *To say* the truth, I was in fault."

887. The infinitive is sometimes omitted ; as, " I consider him [*to be*] an honest man."

888. The verb *have*, followed by the infinitive, sometimes expresses *obligation* or *necessity* ; as, " We *have to do it*," that is, " We must do it."

889. In parsing, the infinitive, in these several constructions, may be briefly stated thus : " The infinitive as the *subject of*—"—"as the *object of*—"—"as the *predicate-nominative after*—"—"The infinitive of *purpose—comparison—cause—used absolutely*."

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

There is but little liability to err in the use of this mood, except in its tense (920, 921), and in the improper use or omission of the sign *to*. When there is no rule to authorise the omission, it should be inserted.

(865) Strive learn.—They obliged him do it.—You ought not walk so fast.—(869) It is better live on a little than outlive a great deal.—It is better to be a king and die than live and be a prince.—(870) He scorns either to temporize, or deceive, or be guilty of evasion.

(877) You need not to be so serious.—I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly.—He bid me to go home.—The boys were all let to go at once.—Let no man to think too highly of himself.—They all heard him to say it.—He was heard say it by everybody.—Some one saw them to pass the house.—They were seen pass the house.—I have observed some artistes to use the term.—Dare be wise.—They were bid come into the house.—(881) Be sure to write yourself, and tell him to.—I strive to live as God designed me to.

Point out the use of the infinitive in the following correct sentences, and show how it is governed.

It too often happens that to be above the reach of want just places us within the reach of avarice.—It does no good to preach generosity, or even justice, to those who have neither sense nor soul.—He was born to be great.—To accomplish these ends, savages resort to cunning.—They thought to make themselves rich.—Great desires are difficult to be gratified.—Some people are difficult to please.—To know ourselves, we must commence by knowing our own weakness.—If we have not always time to read, we have always time to reflect.—To be or not to be ? that is the question.—I do well to be angry.—Whatsoever thy hand findeth to do, do it with thy might.—Having food to eat and raiment to put on, be content.

THE PARTICIPLES.

890. RULE XVI.—*Participles have the construction of nouns, adjectives, and verbs (452, &c.)*

891. The participle as a noun, in the nominative case, may be the subject of a verb (762), or the predicate-nominative after it (798); as, “*Saying is not doing.*” In the objective case, it may be the object of a transitive verb (802), or preposition (819); as, “*Avoid doing evil.*”—“*There is pleasure in doing good.*”

892. In a substantive phrase, a noun following the present or perfect participle (as well as the infinitive 799) of a copulative verb (604), is in the predicate-nominative; as, “*His being an expert dancer*”—“*The crime of being a young man,*” &c.

893. The participle, as an adjective, expresses an attribute, of a noun or pronoun, without affirmation; as, “*The sword hangs rusting* on the wall.

894. The participle, while used as a noun or adjective, may be modified in all respects as the verb (630).

895. To participles used in these ways, the rules of syntax for nouns, adjectives and verbs, may of course be applied.

SPECIAL RULES.

896. RULE 1.—*When the present or perfect participle is used as a noun, a noun before it is put in the possessive case (841); as, “Much depends on the pupil's composing frequently.”—“John's having done so is evident.”*

897. But a pronoun, in this construction, must be the possessive pronoun, and not the possessive case; as, “*Much depends on your composing,*” &c.; not *yours*.

898. In many cases, the nominative or the objective before the present participle as an adjective, will express nearly the same idea. Thus, “*Much will depend on the pupil's composing,*” and “*Much will depend on the pupil composing,*” mean substantially the same thing. Still, the construction is different: in the first, the dependence is on the *composing*, in the second it is on the *pupil*; and though in these examples the sense is nearly the same, yet there are often examples in which the sense is entirely different. Thus, “*What do you think of my horse's running to-day?*” implies he *has run*, and asks, “*How do you think he ran?*” But “*What do you think of my horse running to-day?*” implies he *has not run*, and asks, “*Do you think he should run?*”

899. RULE 2.—*When the present participle, used as a noun, has an ARTICLE or ADJECTIVE before it, the preposition or follows; as, “By the observing of these rules.”—“This was a complete forsaking of the truth.”*

900. In this construction, the participle becomes simply a *noun*, and can not be modified as a *verb*. Hence we can not say, "By the observing *carefully* of these rules;" because the adverb *carefully* can not modify a noun. But we can say, "By the careful observing of," &c.; because *careful*, being an adjective, can modify a noun. Or we can say, "By observing these rules *carefully*," &c.; because *the* and *of* being both removed *observing* can be modified as a verb (922).

901. Both the *article* and *of* may be omitted; but not the one without the other. By this omission, the participle becomes a participial noun, and can be modified as the verb (462). *Of* can not be used when a preposition follows.

902. So here, again, in either of these constructions, the sense in many cases will be the same. Thus, "By the observing of these rules he became eminent," and "By observing these rules he became eminent," express the same idea. But, as in the other case (898), so here, there are examples in which the sense is entirely different. Thus, "He expressed the pleasure he had in the hearing of the philosopher," and "He expressed the pleasure he had in hearing the philosopher," mean entirely different things. So "At the hearing of the ear, they will obey," and "At hearing the ear, they will obey." The first is sense—the last, nonsense.

In such cases, all ambiguity will be avoided by observing the following—

903. RULE 3.—*When the verbal noun expresses something of which the noun following denotes the DOER, it should have the article and the preposition*; as, "It was said in the hearing of the witness." *But when it expresses something of which the noun following does not denote the doer, but the OBJECT, both should be omitted*; as, "The court spent some time in hearing the witness."

904. RULE 4.—*The past participle, and not the past tense, should be used after the auxiliaries HAVE and BE*; as, "I have written" (not wrote)—"The letter is written" (not wrote.)

905. So, also, the past participle should not be used for the past tense; as, "He ran," not run—"I saw," not seen—"I did," not done.

906. In many verbs whose present passive expresses, not the present continuance of the act, but of the result of the act in a finished state, the present participle active has a *passive* as well as an active sense; and is used with the auxiliary verb *to be*, to express the present passive progressively; as, "The house is building" (not being built). When, in such verbs, the participle in *ing* has not a passive sense—or where the use of it in a passive sense would be ambiguous, a different form of expression should be used (456, &c.)

907. The participle is sometimes used absolutely, having no dependence on any other word; as, "Properly speaking, there is no such thing as chance" (769 and 770).

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In the following sentences correct the errors, and give a reason for the change:—

(892). Its being me need make no difference.—We could not be sure of its being him.—The whole depend on its being them.

(896) Man rebelling against his Maker, brought him into ruin.—Joseph having been sold by his brethren, was overruled for good.—God upholding all things, is an evidence of his power.—He being a great man did not make him a happy man.—A man being poor does not make him miserable.—(898) What do you think of my horse running to-day ? Did he run well ?—What think you of my horse's running to-day ? Will it be safe ?

(899) He spends part of his time in studying of the classics.—By the obtaining wisdom you will command respect.—By obtaining of wisdom you will command respect.—This was equal to a rejecting the proposal.—This was equal to rejecting of the proposal.—The learning anything well requires application.—Learning of anything well requires great application.—Meekness is manifested in suffering of ills patiently—in the suffering ills patiently—in the suffering of ills patiently.—In the patient suffering ills—in patient suffering of ills.—Because of provoking his sons and daughters, the Lord abhorred them.—(903) In the hearing of the will read, and in the examining of sundry papers much time was spent.—The greatest pain is suffered in the cutting of the skin.

(904) He has broke his cup.—I have drank enough.—The tree was shook by the wind.—The tree has fell.—Some one has took my pen.—I seen the man who done it.—He has began the work.—Some fell by the way side and was trode down.—The French language is spoke in every part of Europe.

The following sentences from E. Everett, Daniel Webster, Irving, N. A! Review, Cooper, Bancroft, Thomas Brown, Sir G. M'Kensie, Butler, &c., have been changed into modern newspaper English. Restore them, according to (906) :

The fortress was being built.—The spot where this new and strange tragedy was being acted.—An attempt was being made in the English parliament.—The magnificent church now being erected in the city of New York.—While these things were being transacted in England.—While the ceremony was being performed.—The court was then being held.—And still be being done and never done.—Wheat is being sold at a fair price.—Gold is being found in great quantities.—A report is now being prepared.—Goods are now being sold off at first cost.—While the necessary movement was being made.

CONNECTION OF TENSES.

908. RULE XVII.—*In the use of verbs and words that in point of time relate to each other, the order of time must be observed; as, “I have known him these many years”—not, “I know him these many years;” nor, “I knew him these many years.”*

909. REMARK.—The particular tense necessary to be used must depend upon the sense, and no rules can be given that will apply to all cases. But it may be proper to observe—

910. An observation which is always true must be expressed in the *present tense*; as, “The stoicks believed that ‘all crimes *are equal*’” (403).

911. The *present-perfect*, and not the present tense, should be used in connection with words denoting an *extent* of time continued to the present; thus, “They *continue* with me now three days, should be, “*have continued*,” &c. (407).

912. The *present-perfect tense* ought never to be used in connection with words which express past time; thus, “I have *formerly* mentioned his attachment to study,” should be, “I formerly mentioned,” &c.

913. To express an event simply as past, without relation to any other point of time than the present, or as taking place at a certain past time mentioned, the *past tense* is used; as, “God created the world.”—“In the beginning, God created the world.” Exercises in (912) are examples.

914. When we wish to represent an event as *past* at or before a certain past time referred to, the verb must be put in the *past-perfect tense*. Thus, when we say, “The vessel *had arrived* at nine o’clock,” we mean, at nine o’clock the arriving of the vessel was *past*. But when we say, “The vessel *arrived* at nine o’clock,” we mean, the arriving of the vessel was then *present*.

915. It is always essential to the use of this tense that the event be *PAST* at the time referred to. It is proper to notice here, also, that in pointing out the time of a past event, two points or periods of time are often mentioned—the one for the purpose of *ascertaining the other*. Thus, “We arrived an *hour before sunset*.” Here the past-perfect is not used, though the arriving is represented as past before a past time mentioned, viz., *sunset*, because *sunset* is *not the time referred to*, but is mentioned in order to describe that time; and at the time described, the event, *arriving*, was not past, but present. If in this example we omit the word “hour,” and merely say “*before sunset*,” the construction will be the same. This will show that it is correct to say, “Before I went to France I visited England,” because the visiting of England is represented as present, and not past at the time indicated by the word *before*. But if the event mentioned is represented as *past* at the time indicated by the word *before*, or if the sentence is so arranged that only one point of past time is indicated at which the event referred to is past, the *past-perfect* must be used; as, “They *had arrived* before we sailed.”—“They arrived after we *had sailed*.”—“I *had visited* England when we returned to America.”

916. The present and the past of the auxiliaries, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, should never be associated in the same sentence; and care must be taken that the subsequent verb be expressed in the same tense with the antecedent verb (344); thus, "I *may* or *can* do it now, if I *choose*"—"I *might* or *could* do it now, if I *chose*"—"I *shall* or *will* do it, when I *can*"—"I *may* do it, if I *can*"—"I once *could* do it, but I *would not*"—"I *would* have done it then, but I *could not*"—"I *mention* it to him, that he *may* stop if he *choose*"—"I *mentioned* it to him, that he *might* stop if he *chose*"—"I have *mentioned* it to him, that he *may* stop"—"I *had* mentioned it to him, that he *might* stop"—"I *had* mentioned it to him that he *might have stopped* had he *chosen*.

917. In dependent clauses, the *past-perfect indicative* or *potential* is used to express an event antecedent to, but never, contemporary with, or subsequent to, that expressed by a verb in the past tense in the leading clause. Thus, we can say, "I believed he had done it," but not, "I hoped he had done it;" because *belief* may refer to what is past, but *hope* always refers to something future. See also the infinitive (920, 921).

918. When *should* is used instead of *ought*, to express *present* duty (363), it may be followed by the present or present-perfect; as, "You *should* study, that you *may* become learned."

919. The indicative present is frequently used after the words *when*, *till*, *before*, *as soon as*, *after*, to express the relative time of a future action (406); as, "When he *comes*, he *will* be welcome." When placed before the *present-perfect indicative*, these words denote the completion of a future action or event; as, "He *will* never be better *till* he *has felt* the pangs of poverty."

920. A verb in the infinitive mood must be in the *present tense* (446), when it expresses what is *contemporary* in point of time with its governing verb, or *subsequent* to it; as, "He appeared *to be* a man of letters."—"The apostles were determined *to preach* the gospel." Hence, verbs denoting *hope*, *desire*, *intention*, or *command*, must be followed by the *present infinitive*, and not by the *perfect* (451).

921. But the perfect infinitive must be used to express what is *antecedent* to the time of the governing verb; as, "Romulus is said *to have founded* Rome."

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

(910) The doctor said that fever always produced thirst.—The philosopher said that heat always expanded metals.—He said that truth was immutable.

(911) I know the family more than twenty years.—I am now at school six months.—My brother was sick four weeks, and is no better.—He tells lies long enough.—They continue with me now three days.

(912) He has lately lost an only son.—He has been formerly very disorderly.—I have been at London last year, and seen the king last summer.—I have once or twice told the story to

our friend before he went away.—He has done it yesterday.—Some one has long ago told the same story.

(914) After Columbus made his preparations, he set out on his voyage of discovery.—When we finished our lessons we went out to play.—He that was dead sat up and began to speak.—When we had arrived at the palace, we delivered the letters which we previously procured.—It was a strange thing to me, for I never saw such a thing before.—When I came, he was gone.

(916) I should be obliged to him if he would gratify me in that particular.—Ye will not come to me, that ye might have life.—Be wise and good that you might be happy.—He was told his danger, that he may shun it.

(917) We had hoped that Lord Nugent would have been able to collect much new and interesting information.—Columbus hoped that he would have rendered the natives tributary to the crown of Spain.—We expected that they would have come.

(918) He should study diligently, that he might become learned.—We should respect those persons, because they continued long attached to us.

(919) We shall welcome him when he shall arrive.—As soon as he shall return we will recommence our studies.—A prisoner is not accounted guilty till he be convicted.

(920) From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of learning.—Our friends intended to have met us.—He was afraid he would have died.

(921) Kirstall abbey, now in ruins, appears to be an extensive building.—Lycurgus, the Spartan law-giver, is said to be born in the nine hundred and twenty-sixth year before Christ.

CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBS.

922. RULE XVIII.—*Adverbs modify VERBS, ADJECTIVES, and other ADVERBS; as, “John speaks distinctly, he is remarkably diligent, and reads very correctly.”*

[See Etymology of Adverbs, 523, &c.]

923. A few adverbs sometimes modify nouns or pronouns (526); as, “*Not only the men, but the women also, were present.*”—“*I, even I, do bring a flood.*”—*Gen. vi. 17.*

924. Sometimes an adverb modifies a preposition, and sometimes an adjunct or clause of a sentence (525); as, "He sailed *nearly round* the globe"—"Just below the ear"—"Verily I say unto you."

SPECIAL RULES.

925. RULE 1.—*Adverbs should not be used as adjectives, nor adjectives as adverbs* (686, 687).

Thus, "The *above* [preceding] extract."—"It seems *strangely* [strange]."—"We arrived *safely* [safe]."—"He writes *beautifully* [beautiful]."

REMARK.—Though it is perhaps never necessary to use an adverb as an adjective; yet, the authority of good writers has so far sanctioned the violation of this rule in certain cases, that remonstrance would be unavailing. Thus, such phrases as the following are common, "The *above* rule"—"the *then* ministry";—"For *very* age";—"the *hither* side";—"thine *often* infirmities," and the like. Adverbs so used should of course be reckoned adjectives and parsed as such.

926. The adverbs *hence*, *thence*, *whence*, meaning *from this place*, *from that place*, *from which place*, properly should not have *from* before them, because it is implied. But the practice of the best writers has so sanctioned the use of it, that the omission of it would now sometimes appear stiff and affected.

927. After verbs of motion, the adverbs, *hither*, *thither*, *whither*, are now used only in solemn style. In ordinary discourse, *here*, *there*, and *where*, are used instead of them; as, "We came *here*"—"They walked *there*"—"Where did he go?"

928. *Where* should not be used for *in which*, except the reference is to *place*. Thus, "They framed a protestation, *where* [better, *in which*] they repeated their former claims."

929. The adverbs *now*, *then*, *when*, *where*, in such phrases as *till now*, *till then*, *since when*, *to where*, &c., are sometimes used by good writers as nouns. This, however, is rare in prose, and should not be imitated. In poetry it is more common (1048).

930. Of this character are the expressions *at once*, *far from hence*, &c., but these are now established idioms, and in parsing are regarded as one word (535-6).

931. *There*, properly an adverb of place, is often used as an introductory expletive; as, "There came to the beach" (529).

932. RULE 2.—*Two negatives in the same clause are equivalent to an affirmative, and should not be used unless affirmation is intended*; as, "I can not drink *no* [any] more," or, "I can drink *no* more."

REMARK.—But a repetition of the negation by independent negative words or phrases, or by transferring the word *neither* to the end of the clause, usually strengthens the negation; as, "There is *none* righteous, *no*, *not one*."—"He will *never* consent, *not he*, *not I neither*."

933. One negative is sometimes connected with another implied in the negative prefixes, *dis*, *un*, *im*, *in*, *i'*, *ir*, &c.; as, "You are *not* *unacquainted* with his merits," that is, "You are *acquainted*," &c. In this way a

pleasing variety of expression is sometimes produced. But the word *only* with the negative, preserves the negation; as, "He was not *only* illiberal, but even covetous."

934. The adverbs *nay*, *no*, *yea*, *yes*, often stand alone as a negative or an affirmative answer to a question; as, "Will he go?"—"No"="He will not go."—"Is he at home?"—"Yes"="He is at home." *Amen* is an affirmative verb, equivalent to "*Be it so*," or "*May it be so*."

935. *No*, before a noun, is an *adjective*; as, "*No man*." Before an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree, it is an *adverb*; as, "*No taller*"—"No sooner." In all other cases the proper negative is *not*; as, "He will *not* come"—"Whether he come or *not*."

POSITION.

936. RULE 3.—*Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb in the single form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form*; as, "He is *very* attentive, behaves *well*, and is *much* esteemed."

937. This rule applies generally to adverbial adjunct phrases as well as to adverbs (825).

938. This is to be considered only as a general rule, to which there are many exceptions. Indeed, no rule for the position of the adverb can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. That order is the best which conveys the meaning with most precision. In order to this, the adverb is sometimes placed before the verb, or at some distance after it.

939. *Never*, *often*, *always*, *sometimes*, generally precede the verb. *Not*, with the participle or infinitive, should generally be placed before it (500).

940. The improper position of the adverb *only* often occasions ambiguity. This will generally be avoided when it refers to a sentence or clause, by placing it at the beginning of that sentence or clause; when it refers to a predicate, by placing it before the predicated term; and when it refers to a subject, by placing it after its name or description; as, "Only acknowledge thine iniquity."—"The thoughts of his heart are *only* evil."—"Take nothing for your journey but a staff *only*." These observations will generally be applicable to the words *merely*, *solely*, *chiefly*, *first*, *at least*, and perhaps to a few others.

941. In prose, *to*, the sign of the infinitive, or rather a part of it, should never be separated by placing an adverb immediately after it. Thus, "They are accustomed *to carefully study* their lessons," should be "*to study carefully*," or "*carefully to study*," &c.

942. The adverb *enough* is commonly placed after the adjective which it modifies; as, "A large *enough* house"—"A house large *enough* for all."

943. *Ever* and *never* are sometimes improperly confounded; thus, "Seldom or *ever*," should be "Seldom or *never*," or "Seldom if *ever*." *Ever so*, referring to quantity or degree, means *in whatsoever degree*. Hence "Charming *never so wisely*," should be "*ever so wisely*." So, "*Ever so much*," "*ever so wise*," &c.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

As adverbs are indeclinable, mistakes are liable to be made chiefly in their position, or in using as adverbs words that are not so, or in using adverbs where other words are required. Correct the errors in the following:—

(825) They hoped for a soon and prosperous issue to the war.—The then emperor was noted for his cruelty.—He was befriended by the then reigning duke.—She walks graceful.—He spoke eloquent.—She did that work good.—Our friends arrived safely.—The boat moves rapid.—His expressions sounded harshly.—She is a remarkable pretty girl.—My foot slipped, and I pretty near fell down.

(926) He departed from thence into a desert place.—I will send thee far from hence to the Gentiles.—From hence ! away !

(927) Where art thou gone ?—And he said unto me, “Come up here.”—The city is near, oh ! let me escape there.—Where I am, there ye can not come.

(928) He drew up a petition, where he represented his own merit.—The condition where I found him was deplorable.—He went to London last year, since when I have not seen him.

(932) I can not do no more.—He will never be no taller.—He did not say nothing at all.—Neither he nor no one else can do that.—I have received no information on the subject, neither from him nor from his friend.—I never did repent for doing good, nor shall not now.—I can not see to write no more.—Nothing never can justify ingratitude.—(935) Be so kind as to tell me whether he will do it or no.

(936) We should not be overcome totally by present events.—We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure.—It is impossible continually to be at work.—Not only he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also.—In the proper disposition of adverbs, the ear carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense.—They seemed to be nearly dressed alike.—(937) I wished that any one would hang me a hundred times.

(938) The women contributed all their rings and jewels voluntarily, to assist the government.—He determined to invite back the king, and to call together his friends.—(939) Having not known or having not considered the measures proposed, he failed of success.

(940) Theism can only be opposed to polytheism.—By greatness, I do not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the

distinctness of a whole view.—Only you have I known of all the nations of the earth.—In promoting the public good, we only discharge our duty.—He only read one book, not two.—He read the book only, but did not keep it.—He only read the book, but not the letter.—He chiefly spoke of virtue, not of vice.—He only reads English, not French.

(941) Scholars should be taught to carefully scrutinize the sentiments advanced in the books they read.—To make this sentence perpicuous, it will be necessary to entirely remodel it.

CONSTRUCTION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

944. RULE XIX.—*Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences (561).*

945. Words of the same class, having a similar relation to another word to which they belong, are connected by a conjunction. Thus—

1. Nouns or pronouns; as, “James and John and I are here.”
2. Adjectives; as, “A prudent, brave, and honorable man.”
3. Verbs; as, “Cæsar came and saw and conquered.”
4. Adverbs, or adverbs and adjuncts; as, “He won the prize fairly and honorably,” or “fairly and with honor,” or “with fairness and with honor.”
5. Prepositions; as, “To and from the city”—“Up and down the hill.”

946. Verbs connected have the same nominative; as, “James reads and writes.”

947. Nouns or pronouns connected in the nominative case, either as subjects or attributes, are related as such to the same verb; as, “John and James are cousins.”—“He is a gentleman and a scholar.”

948. Nouns or pronouns connected in the possessive case are governed by the same noun; as, “John’s and James’s books.”

949. Nouns or pronouns, connected in the objective case, are governed by the same verb or preposition; as, “He studies grammar and logic”—“Give the books to him and me.”

950. When nominatives belong to different verbs, or verbs to different nominatives, the conjunction connects the sentences, not the words; as, “John reads and James writes.”

951. Simple sentences or clauses are connected by conjunctions, so as to form one compound sentence; as, “I said that ye are gods; but ye shall die.”

952. Similar sentences, whether dependent or independent, are connected by the conjunctions *and*, *or*, *nor*, *but*, *yet*, &c.

953. Dependent members or clauses are connected with their leading clauses by such conjunctions, or other connective words, as may properly indicate the relation intended (962 and 963).

954. Conjunctions are frequently understood between the words of sentences connected ; as, "Cæsar *came*, *saw*, and *conquered*."—"The *men*, *women*, and *children*, were present."—"It is the part of those that are great, to give—of those that are poor, to ask."—"Learning collects materials; wisdom applies them."

SPECIAL RULES.

955. RULE 1.—Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns ; as, "Do good, and seek peace."—"Honorable father and mother."

[This rule applies to the infinitive and participles.]

956. Verbs of the same mood and tense, under this rule, are generally also in the same form (474) ; as, "He *reads* and *writes*," (not, *does write*).

957. Verbs in different clauses, connected by a conjunction, but having a different construction, may be in different moods and tenses ; as, "I *read* that I *may learn*."

958. When two or more verbs in the compound tenses, or in the progressive or emphatic form, or in the passive voice, are connected, the auxiliary expressed with the first, may be understood to the rest ; as, "He can neither *read* nor *write*."—"Diligence should be commended and rewarded." Still, however, the repetition of the auxiliary is often more emphatic : as, "They shall come, and they shall declare his truth."

959. Verbs of the same mood, tense or form, connected as a compound predicate (627), have the nominative expressed with the first, and understood to the rest ; as, "Cæsar *came*, *saw*, and *conquered*." But—

960. When verbs connected are not of the same mood, tense, or form, and especially if contrast or opposition, expressed by *but*, *though*, *yet*, is intended the nominative is frequently repeated ; as, "He *came*, but he would not stay." But still—

961. This is to be regarded only as a general direction, in accordance with, perhaps, the majority of cases, but to which, as a rule, there are many exceptions. The object aimed at is to secure euphony and perspicuity ; and when these are preserved without repeating the nominative, it may be omitted ; as, "The two charges *had been*, and still *are*, united in one person."—*North British Review*.

962. After expressions implying doubt, fear, or denial, the conjunction that is properly used—not *lest*, *but*, *but that* ; as, "I do not doubt that he is honest."—"I am afraid that he will die."—Also, what should never be used for *that*. Thus, "He will not believe but what I am to blame," should be, "but that I am to blame."

963. RULE 2.—Certain words in the antecedent member of a sentence, require corresponding connectives in the subsequent one ; thus—

1. In clauses or words simply connected—

Both requires *and* (567) ; as, "Both he and I came."

Either —— or (570) ; as, "Either he or I will come."

Neither —— nor (570) ; as, "Neither he nor I came."

Whether —— or ; as, "Whether he or I came."

Though —— *yet*; as, *Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.*"

Not only —— *but also*; as, "*Not only he but also his brother goes.*"

2. In clauses connected so as to imply comparison—

The comparative degree requires *than*; as, "*He is taller than I am.*"

Other requires *than*; as, "*It is no other than he.*"

Else —— *than*; as, "*What else do you expect than this?*"

As —— *as* (expressing *equality*); as, "*He is as tall as I am.*"

As —— *so* (expressing *equality*); as, "*As thy day is, so shall thy strength be.*"

So —— *as* (with a negative, expressing *inequality*); as, "*He is not so learned as his brother.*"

So —— *that* (expressing *consequence*); as, "*He is so weak that he can not walk.*"

Such —— *as* (expressing *similarity*); as, "*He or such as he.*"

Such —— *that* (with a finite verb, to express a *consequence*); as, "*The difference is such that all will perceive it.*"

For *as* and *so*, in comparison, see 531. For *as* sometimes regarded as a relative, see 271—as a connective of words in apposition, 674. For the infinitive after *so*—*as*, see 884.

964. *And, or, nor*, do not require the corresponding antecedent, and *though* does not always require *yet*. By poetic license (1048–6), *or* and *nor* are sometimes used as antecedents, instead of *either, neither* (570).

965. In sentences implying comparison, there is commonly an ellipsis in the second member, after *than* and *as*; "*My punishment is greater than [that is which] I can bear.*"—"My punishment is as great as [*that is which*] I can bear." And sometimes in sentences not implying comparison, after *though* and *if*; as, "*Though [it is] coarse, it is good.*"—"He is kind, if [*he is*] sincere" (978-7).

966. A relative after *thou* is put in the objective case; as, "*Satan, than whom none higher sat.*" This anomaly may be regarded as a case of simple *enallage* (1044–4).

967. RULE 3.—*When a subsequent clause or part of a sentence is common to two different but connected antecedent clauses, it must be equally applicable to both*; as, "*That work always has been, and always will be, admired.*"—"He is as tall, though not so handsome, *as his brother.*"

868. When this rule is violated, the correction is made, either—

1. By altering one of the antecedent clauses, so that the subsequent may be applicable to both. Thus, "*The story has and will be believed,*" is not correct, because, though we can say, *will be believed*, we can not say, *has he believed*. It should be, "*The story has been, and will be believed,*" or—

2. If this can not be done, we may complete the construction of the first part by annexing its appropriate subsequent, and leave the subsequent of the second understood. Thus, "He was more beloved but not so much admired as Cynthio," is not correct, because we can not say, "He was more beloved as Cynthio." It should be, "He was more beloved than Cynthio, but not so much admired."

969. The principle of this rule applies to the appropriate *selection* of words as well as to their *construction*; thus, "This doctrine is founded and consistent with the truth," should be, "founded upon, and consistent with," &c.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In the following sentences point out the conjunctions, the words or sentences connected by them—see whether they correspond, according to the rules, and if not, correct and give a reason for the change.

(955) He reads and wrote well.—Anger glances into the breast of a wise man, but will rest only in the bosom of fools.—If he understand the subject and attends to it, he can scarcely fail of success.—Enjoying health and to live in peace are great blessings.—Be more anxious to acquire knowledge than about showing it.—Be more anxious about acquiring knowledge than to show it.

You and me are great friends.—This is a small matter between you and I.—My father and him are very intimate.—He is taller than me; but I am older than him.

(956) He reads and writeth well.—He reads and does write well.—He reads and is writing well.—Does he not read and writes well?—Did he not tell thee his fault, and entreated thee to forgive him?—Earth hath her solitudes, and so has life.

(958) He can neither read nor can write.—I will come and will see you, and will tell you the whole story.—He should have written, or should have sent, or should have come himself.

(960) Can these persons consent to such a proposal, and will consent to it?—How distinguished for talents he is, and how useful might be.—He might have been happy and now is convinced of it.—He could command his temper, though would not.

(962) I do not deny but he has merit. They were afraid lest you would be offended.—We were apprehensive lest some accident had happened to him. We can not deny but what he was ill-treated.—We can not doubt but what he is well.—I can not see but what he is well.

(963-1) It is neither cold or hot.—It is so clear as I need not explain it.—The relations are so uncertain, as that they re-

quire much examination.—The one is equally deserving as the other.—I must be so candid to own that I have been mistaken.—He would not do it himself nor let me do it.—He was as angry as he could not speak.—So as thy days so shall thy strength be.—Though he slay me so will I trust in him.—He must go himself or send his servant.—There is no condition so secure as can not admit of change.—He is not as eminent and as much esteemed as he thinks himself to be.

(963-2) He has little more of the scholar besides the name.—Be ready to succor such persons who need thy assistance.—They had no sooner risen but they applied themselves to their studies.—These savage people seemed to have no other element but war.—Such men that act treacherously ought to be avoided.—He gained nothing further by his speech, but only to be commended for his eloquence.—This is none other but the gate of Paradise.

(967) I always have and I always shall be of this opinion.—He is bolder but not so wise as his companion.—Sincerity is as valuable and even more so than knowledge.—Their intentions might and probably were good. The reward has already or will hereafter be given to him.—Will it be urged that these books are as old or even older than tradition.—This book is preferable and cheaper than the other. He takes no care nor interest in the matter.

INTERJECTIONS.

970. RULE XX.—*Interjections have no grammatical connection with the other words in a sentence (556).*

971. After interjections, pronouns of the first person are commonly in the objective case; those of the second, in the nominative; as, “Ah me!”—“O thou!”

972. In neither of these, however, does the case depend on the interjection. The objective is commonly thought to be governed by a word understood; thus, “Ah [pity] me!”—“Ah [what will become of] me!” The nominative is commonly the nominative of the person addressed (773).

GENERAL RULE.

973. *In every sentence, the words employed, and the order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended; and*

at the same time, all the parts of the sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be preserved throughout.

974. This may be regarded as a general rule, applicable to every case, and therefore comprehending all the preceding. Though these are so full and minute as to embrace almost everything belonging to the proper construction of sentences, yet there will sometimes occur instances of impropriety in the use, and arrangement, and connection of words, for the avoiding or correcting of which no very specific rule can be given.

975. Among the evils to be guarded against under this general rule, are the following :—

1. The use of words which do not correctly or properly convey the idea intended, or which convey *another* with equal propriety.
2. The arrangement of words and clauses in such a way that their relation to other words and clauses is doubtful, or difficult to be perceived.
3. The separating of adjuncts (541) from their principals, and placing them so that they may be joined to words to which they do not belong. (832.)
4. The separating of relative clauses improperly from their antecedents (755 and 759.)
5. Using injudiciously, or too frequently, the third personal or possessive pronoun, especially in indirect discourse (1129.)

EXERCISES.

The following sentences are not grammatically incorrect, but from some of the causes mentioned above, are *obscure*, *inelegant*, *ambiguous*, or *unintelligible*. Let the pupil point out the error and correct it, and give a reason for the correction.

The son said to his father that he had sinned against Heaven.—A farmer went to a lawyer, and told him that his bull had gored his ox.—The Greeks fearing to be surrounded on all sides wheeled about and halted with the river on their backs.—Nor was Philip wanting to corrupt Demosthenes, as he had most of the leading men of Greece.—Parmenio had served, with great fidelity, Philip the father of Alexander, as well as himself, for whom he first opened the way into Asia.—Belisarius was general of all the forces under Justinian the First, a man of rare valor.—Lysias promised his father never to abandon his friends.—Carthage was demolished to the ground so that we are unable to say where it stood, at this day.—Thus ended the war with Antiochus, twelve years after the second Punic war, and two after it had been begun.—Claudius was canonized among the gods, who scarcely deserved the name of a man.

976. Another class of improprieties arises from the improper omission of words, by which the grammatical construction of a sentence is broken up. As a general rule, the fewer the words are by which we express our ideas, the better, provided the meaning is clearly brought out. This may often be done without using all the words necessary to the full grammatical form of a sentence, and hence, as the tendency always is to abbreviate speech, such words as can be spared, according to the usage of the language, are properly omitted. This omission is called

ELLIPSES (1044-1).

Respecting the use of this figure, nothing more definite can be laid down than what is contained in the following

SPECIAL RULES.

977. RULE 1.—*An ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissible when they can be supplied by the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense.* Thus—

Instead of saying, “He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man,” we may say, “He was a learned, wise, and good man.”

978. According to common usage, an ellipsis of the different parts of speech is allowed in the following cases, viz.:—

1. **NOUN AND PRONOUN.**—When two or more things are asserted of the same subject, the noun or pronoun is expressed before the first verb, and omitted before the rest. Also, when the same noun or pronoun is the object of several verbs, it is omitted after all except the last; as, “I love, fear, and respect him,” instead of, “I love him, I fear him, and I respect him.”

2. A noun is frequently omitted after the comparative degree; as, “I will pull down my barns, and build greater [barns].”

3. When two or more adjectives qualify the same noun, the noun is omitted after all except the last; as, “A great, wise, and good man,” for “A great man, a wise man, and a good man.”

4. **ADJECTIVE AND ARTICLE.**—When an adjective qualifies two or more nouns, it is omitted before all except the first only; as, “Good qualities and actions”—“Happy boys and girls”—“He is an honest, learned, and well-bred man,” for, “an honest, a learned, and a well-bred man.”

5. **VERBS.**—A verb is often omitted after its subject, preceded by the comparative degree; as, “He is wiser than I [am]”—“I am younger than he [is].”

6. When several clauses come together, having the same predicate verb, the verb is often expressed in the first, and omitted in the rest; as, “The Italians have imitated the Latins; the English, the Italians; and the Americans, the English.” Sometimes it is omitted in the first, and expressed in the last; as, “Not only men, but nations, imitate one another.”

7. The verb *to be*, with its subject, in dependent clauses, is often omitted after the connectives, *if*, *though*, *yet*, *when*, &c.; as, "Study, if [*it is*] neglected, becomes irksome."—"Though [*he was*] poor, he was honest." (965).

8. In poetry, verbs which express *address* or *answer*, are often omitted; as, "To him the prince [*replied*]." Also, when the words connected readily indicate what the verb must be, if expressed; as, "I'll hence to London"—"I'll in"—"Away, old man!"—*Shaks.*—"Up, up, Glenarkin!" — *W. Scott.*

9. The verb is often omitted in the second clause of a sentence after the auxiliary, when the same verb is used in the first clause; as, "You have read, but I have not [*read*]." Also, verbs connected in the same voice, mood, and tense, having the auxiliary with the first, omit it with the rest; as, "He will be loved and *respected* for his virtues."

10. ADVERB.—When an adverb modifies more words than one, it is placed only with the last; as, "He spoke and acted *gracefully*."

11. PREPOSITION.—When the same preposition connects two or more subsequent terms of a relation with one antecedent term, it is usually omitted before all except the first; as, "Over the hills and the valleys"—"Through woods and wilds."

12. CONJUNCTION.—When several words and clauses come together in the same construction, the conjunction is sometimes omitted entirely, sometimes between each pair, and sometimes before all except the last; as, "He caused the blind to see, the lame to walk, the deaf to hear, the lepers to be cleansed."—"We ran hither and thither, seeking novelty and change—sympathy and pastime—communion and love."—"Youth is the season of joy, of bliss, of strength, and pride."

13. INTERJECTION.—The interjections are never omitted, but, in the expression of sudden emotion, all but the most important words are commonly omitted; as, "Well done!" for, "That is well done!" Also, after interjections, there is often an ellipsis of the obvious word; as, "O for a lodge," &c., that is, "O how I long for a lodge," &c.—"A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!" that is, "Bring me a horse. I would give my kingdom for a horse."

979. RULE 2.—*An ellipsis is not allowable, when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety*; as, "We speak that we do know," for *that which*, &c.

980. In general, no word should be omitted by ellipsis, that is necessary to the usual construction or harmony of a sentence, or to render the meaning perspicuous.

981. Articles, pronouns, and prepositions, should always be repeated, when the words with which they stand connected are used emphatically. Under such circumstances, even nouns, adjectives, and verbs, must often be repeated; as, "Not only *the year*, but *the day* and *the hour* were appointed."

982. It is generally improper, except in poetry, to omit the antecedent to a relative; and it is always so, to omit a relative, when it is in the nominative.

EXERCISES TO BE CORRECTED.

In the following sentences, omit such words as are not necessary to the sense :—

(977-1) Cicero was an eloquent man, an able man, a generous man, and he was a truly patriotic man.—Avarice and cunning may gain an estate, but avarice and cunning cannot gain friends.—I venerate him, I respect him, I love him, on account of his virtues.—(977-4) He has an affectionate brother and an affectionate sister.—(977-6) Genuine virtue supposes our benevolence to be strengthened and to be confirmed by principle.—Perseverance in laudable pursuits will reward all our toils, and will produce effects beyond our calculation.—(977-10) We often commend imprudently, as well as censure imprudently.—(977-11) Changes are almost constantly taken place in men and in manners, in opinions and in customs, in private fortunes and in public conduct.—(977-1. 6. 9.) He is temperate, he is disinterested, he is benevolent.—He regards the truth, but thou dost not regard it.—We succeeded, but they did not succeed.

In the following sentences, supply the words improperly omitted, and state why they should be restored :—

(979) We are naturally inclined to praise who praise us, and to flatter who flatter us.—Who best can suffer best can do.—A beautiful garden and trees were sold.—His honor, interest, religion, were all embarked in this undertaking.—Many days and even weeks pass away unimproved.—The captain had several men died in his ship.—His conduct is not scandalous, and that is the best can be said of it.—They enjoy a free constitution and laws.—That is a property most men have, or at least may attain.—This property has or will be sold.—You suppose him younger than I.—It requires few talents to which most men are not born, or at least may not acquire.—He may be said to have saved the life of a citizen, and consequently entitled to the reward.—The people of this country possess a healthy climate and soil.—I have purchased a house and orchard.—A noble spirit disdaineth the malice of fortune ; his greatness of soul is not to be cast down.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON RULES 1 AND 2.

The preposition *in* is set before countries, cities, and large towns.

There is a God who made and governs the world.—Of whom hast thou been afraid or feared ?—I deny not but that religion consists in these things.—This sentiment is well expressed by Plato, but much better by Solomon than him.

SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

983. SYNTACTICAL PARSING includes *etymological*, and adds to it a statement of the relation in which words stand to each other, and the rules according to which they are combined in phrases and sentences.

Before parsing a sentence syntactically, it should first be analyzed, as directed (658), and exemplified (659).

MODEL OF SYNTACTICAL PARSING.

"The minutest plant or animal, if attentively examined, affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore the Omnipotent hand by which it was created."

This sentence contains all the parts of speech except the *interjection*. It is parsed etymologically (581 and 582), and analyzed (659-7), which see. It may now be parsed syntactically, as follows:—

The is the DEFINITE ARTICLE; it belongs to *plant* or *animal* (711), and shows these words to be limited.—RULE III., 2. "The article *the* is put," &c. (707).

minutest is an ADJECTIVE, compared here by *er* and *est*, superlative, and qualifies *plant* or *animal*.—RULE II., 1. "An adjective or participle," &c. (676).

plant is a NOUN, neuter, in the nominative singular, the subject of *affords* and *obliges*.—RULE VI., "The subject of a finite verb," &c. (760).

or is a DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTION, connecting as alternates *plant* and *animal* (569).—RULE XIX. "Conjunctions connect," &c. (944).

animal is a NOUN, neuter, in the nominative singular—same as *plant*—and connected with it by *or*.

if is a conjunction; it connects its clause with the preceding as a condition.—RULE XIX. "Conjunctions connect," &c. (944).

it (understood) is a third PERSONAL PRONOUN, neuter, in the nominative singular; it stands for *plant* or *animal*.—RULE IV., 2. "When a pronoun refers," &c. (730); and is the subject of *is examined*.—RULE VI. "The subject of a finite verb," (760).

is examined. is a VERB, transitive, regular,* in the present indicative, passive, expressing an act done to its subject *it*, with which it agrees.—RULE VIII. "A verb agrees," &c. (776).

* *Conjugating* is here omitted for brevity, it being unnecessary, because the verb is mentioned as *regular* (491, note).

attentively... is an ADVERB, derived from *attentive*, and compared by *more* and *most*; it modifies *is examined*.—RULE XVIII. “Adverbs modify, &c. (922).

affords.... is a VERB, transitive, regular; in the present indicative, active, third person singular; agrees with, and affirms of *plant* or *animal*.—RULE 3 under RULE VIII. “Two or more substantives singular,” &c. (785).

a..... is the INDEFINITE ARTICLE, and belongs to *thousand*. It shows that the number is regarded as *one aggregate* (716).—RULE III., 1 “The article *a* or *an*,” &c. (707 and 726).

thousand ... is a NUMERAL ADJECTIVE, cardinal, qualifying *wonders*.—RULE II., 1. “An adjective or participle,” &c. (676).

wonders is a NOUN, neuter, in the objective plural, the object of, and governed by, *affords*.—RULE X. “A transitive verb,” &c., (801).

and..... is a COPULATIVE CONJUNCTION; it connects *affords* and *obliges*.—RULE XIX. “Conjunctions connect,” &c. (944).

obliges is the same as *affords*. See above.

us..... is a PERSONAL PRONOUN, first person, masculine or feminine, in the objective plural, the object of, and governed by, *obliges*.—RULE X. “A transitive verb,” &c. (801). It is at the same time the subject of *to admire* and *to adore*.—RULE 3 under RULE XV. “The infinitive as the subject,” &c. (872 and 873).

to admire.... is a VERB, transitive, regular, in the present infinitive, active, governed by *obliges*.—RULE XV. “The infinitive mood is governed,” &c. (865).

and..... is a COPULATIVE CONJUNCTION; it connects *to admire* and *to adore*.—RULE XIX. “Conjunctions connect,” &c. (944).

to adore is the same in parsing and construction as *to admire*.

the is the DEFINITE ARTICLE; it belongs to *hand*, and shows it to be limited.—RULE III., 2. “The article *the*,” &c. (707).

Omnipotent. is an ADJECTIVE, not compared, because it does not admit of increase (223) It qualifies *hand*.—RULE II., 1. “An adjective or participle,” &c. (676).

hand..... is a NOUN, neuter, in the objective singular, governed by *to admire* and *to adore*.—RULE X. “A transitive verb,” &c. (801).

by..... is a PREPOSITION; it shows the relation between *was created*, the antecedent term, and *which*, the subsequent term (538, 539).

which..... is a RELATIVE PRONOUN, neuter, in the objective singular; refers to, and agrees with *hand* as its antecedent.—RULE V. “The relative agrees,” &c. (742); and is governed by *by*.—RULE XI. “A preposition governs,” &c. (818). It connects its clause with *hand*, and describes it (645 and 610–5).

it is a PRONOUN, same as before; is the subject of *was created*.—RULE VI. “The subject of a finite verb,” &c. (760).

was created . is a VERB, transitive, regular, in the past indicative, passive, third person singular; affirms of, and agrees with *it*.—RULE VIII. “A verb agrees,” &c. (776).

In the same manuer, parse the other sentences analyzed (659); and analyze and parse the exercises following them page 143, and any correct sentences from any good author.

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES ON THE RULES OF SYNTAX, ETC.

 In the preceding “Exercises to be corrected,” care has been taken to insert such examples only as can be corrected by the rule, or the observations under which they are placed, or by those which precede them. In the following “Promiscuous Exercises,” no particular arrangement is observed. Every sentence contains one error, many of them two, and some of them three or more. Many of the errors, too, are such as are often made, and, on account of our familiarity with them, are not so readily noticed. Others are such as nobody would make, and of course will at once be detected. These are inserted, not so much to be guarded against, as to illustrate and draw attention to the rule which they violate, and to show that others which are not so obvious, and which are sometimes committed, involve the same error. For example, nobody would say, “*Him writes*.” Some perhaps might say, “Here is the man whom everybody says is the writer of that letter; and yet the error in both is the same, and violates Rule VI. In all these examples for correction, the object aimed at is to put the pupil in possession of the idea intended to be expressed—and the exercise for him is to express that idea grammatically, in the best manner. There can be no danger of imitating an expression which he is forewarned is wrong; while it will exercise his judgment to detect the error, test his knowledge of grammar, and be a profitable exercise in composition to put the sentence right.

All these exercises may first be corrected orally—showing wherein each is wrong, and why—correcting the error—and giving a reason for the change made. They may then be written out in a corrected state. After that each sentence may be analyzed as directed (658), and then parsed syntactically as directed (983).

I.—1. Too great a variety of studies perplex and weaken the judgment.—2. I called to see you, but you was not at home.—3. To act with caution, but with steadiness and vigor, distinguish the manly character.—4. The crown of virtue is peace and honor.—5. In the human species, the influence of instinct and habit are generally assisted by the suggestions of reason.—6. The train of our ideas are often interrupted.—7. They were both unfortunate, but neither of them were to blame.

2.—1. We arrived safely at our journey’s end.—2. That is a matter of no consequence between you and I.—3. This should not happen between such friends as him and me.—4. Them

that seek knowledge will find it.—5. Such are the men whom, we might suppose, know better.—6. Our welfare and security consists in unity.—7. The love of virtue, and devotion to pleasure, is opposed to each other.—8. Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water, teem with life.—9. No oppressor and no tyrant triumph there.—10. All the world is spectators of your conduct.

3.—1. Nothing is more lovelier than virtue.—2. His associates in wickedness will not fail to mark the alteration of his conduct.—3. He is taller than me, but I am stronger than him.—4. Neither riches or beauty furnish solid peace and contentment.—5. The abuse of mercies ripen us for judgments.—6. John, William, and Henry's hats were stolen.—7. A mans manners frequently influence his fortune.—8. Much depends on this rule being observed.—9. Such will ever be the effect of youth associating with vicious companions.—10. Give to every one their due.—11. It has been fully shown that neither of them are correct.—12. Every bone, every muscle, every part of man, are known to Him which made him.

4.—1. He writes tolerably well.—2. Three months' notice are required to be given previous to a pupil's leaving of the school.—3. That rose smells sweetly.—4. He employed another friend of his father to assert his claim—[whose claim?]—5. A soul inspired with the love of truth, will keep all his powers attentive to the pursuit of it.—6. It is the duty of every one to be careful of their reputation.—7. It is remarkable his continual endeavours to serve us.—8. Whatever antiquities he could procure, he purchased them at any price.—9. I am not so well as when you was here.—10. It is three days yesterday since you have promised that money.—11. This mode of expression has been formerly in use.—12. He promised long ago, that he had attended to that matter.—13. He was expected to have arrived earlier.

5.—1. Twice three are six.—2. Six times three are eighteen.—3. As two are to four, so are six to twelve.—4. Five are the half of ten.—5. The half of ten are five.—6. Nine are not an even number.—7. One man and one boy is sufficient.—8. Two boys is equal to one man.—9. Two boys are less than three—three is better than nothing.—10. Two is better than one.—11. Two are an even number—three are not.—12. Two are twice one.—13. Two and two makes four.—14. Three-fourths are more than one-half.—15. Five men is too many for

such a piece of work—three is too few.—16. Three shot was fired without effect.—17. The fleet consisted of six sails.—18. A drove of forty heads of cattle passed along.

6.—1. Molasses are thicker than water.—2. The measles are spreading through the country.—3. Wheat is being sold for a dollar a bushel, and oats is in demand.—4. The news by the last arrival is better than were expected.—5. We hoped to have heard from you before this.—6. Do you not think he writes good?—7. The wind blows coldly from the north, and the snow lies deeply on the ground.—8. James is as tall if not taller than I am.—9. He never has and he never will do so well.—10. He whoever said so was mistaken.—11. There are a heroic innocence as well as a heroic courage.—12. He puts down the mighty and exalteth the humble.—13. Piety toward God, as well as sobriety and virtue, are necessary to happiness.

7.—1. Take care who you admit into your friendship.—2. I always understood it to be he, whom they said wrote that book.—3. If I was him, I would take more care for the future.—4. There is two or three of us who have been at Europe last year.—5. We were in Havre when the revolution broke out at France.—6. I have been to Boston for a few days, and spent the time very pleasant.—7. That is the man and the horse which we met before.—8. George was the most enterprising young man whom I ever knew.—9. All who were present were pleased with the entertainment.

8.—1. This excellent person was fully resigned either to have lived or to have died.—2. Between he and I there is some disparity of years, but none between he and she.—3. To be moderate in our views, and proceeding temperately in pursuit of them, is the best way to insure success.—4. Enjoying health, and to live in peace, are great blessings.—5. Which dictionary do you prefer, Webster or Walker?—6. Though this event be strange, it certainly did happen.—If he does but consider the subject, he will no doubt change his opinion.—8. Ignorance is the mother of fear, as well as admiration.—9. Let him be whom he may, I can not wait for him.—10. We have no need for his assistance.—11. Among every class of people, self-interest prevails.

9.—1. Many have profited from the misfortunes of others.—2. Many ridiculous customs have been brought in use during the hundred last years.—3. Is there no person who you can send on that business?—4. Little attention to business is neces-

sary, if you would succeed.—5. A truth is virtue to which we should pay little regard.—6. Without firmness, nothing that is great can be undertaken; that is hazardous, accomplished.—7. The people of the United States enjoys a free constitution and laws.—8. That is a property most men have, or at least may attain.—9. The pyramids of Egypt stood more than three thousand years.—10. It is thought they have been built by the Egyptian kings.—11. When the nation complain, the rulers should listen to their voice.—12. Whom say the people that I am?

10.—1. They that honor me, I will honor.—2. He only got the money for a few days.—3. He was mistaken evidently in his calculations.—4. No man is fit for free conversation, for the inquiry after truth, if he be exceedingly reserved; if he be haughty and proud of his knowledge; if he be positive and dogmatical in his opinions; if he be one who always affects to outshine all the company; if he be fretful and peevish; if he affect wit, and is full of puns, or quirks, or quibbles.—5. A good end does not warrant the using of bad means.—6. A good end does not warrant using of bad means.—7. Humility neither seeks the last place, or the last word.—8. Either wealth or power may ruin their possessor.—9. Avoid lightness and frivolity; it is allied to folly.—10. Do you know who you are talking to?—11. Art thou the man who hast dared to insult me?—12. O that the winter was gone!

11.—1. We are often disappointed of things which, before possession, promised much enjoyment.—2. We can fully confide on none but the truly good.—3. You may rely in that.—4. The Saxons reduced the greater part of Britain to their power.—5. He was accused with acting unfairly, at least in a manner illy adapted for conciliating regard.—6. There is more business done in New York than in any city of the United States.—7. The same laws and the same constitution which belongs to one citizen of the United States belongs to all.—8. If there was better management, there would be greater security.—9. The ship Panama is early expected from Canton in the spring.—10. Every year, every day, and every hour, bring their changes.—11. Whom say ye that I am?

12—1. Many a youth have ruined their prospects for life by one imprudent step.—2. No power was ever yet intrusted to man without liability to abuse.—3. A conceited fool is more abominable than all fools.—4. My gravity never did no one any

harm.—5. A constant display of the graces are fatiguing to a sober mind.—6. These coins of compliment and flattery circulate everywhere in society: the true is of gold, the base is of brass.—7. Expectation and reality makes up the sum total of life.—8. Music, the love of it, and the practice of it, seems to pervade all creation.—9. All soils are not adapted for cultivation.—10. The vain abhors the vain.—11. The author dreads the critic, the miser dreads the thief, the criminal dreads the judge, the horse dreads the whip, the lamb dreads the wolf—all after their kind.—12. The intellectual and the moral censor both have the same ends in view.

13.—1. I was engaged formerly in that business, but I never shall be again concerned in it.—2. We do those things frequently which we repent of afterward.—3. Not to exasperate him, I only spoke a few words.—4. Shall you attain success without that preparation, and escape dangers without that precaution which is required of others?—5. That picture of your mother's is a very exact resemblance of her.—6. The winter has not been as severe as we expected it to have been.—7. In reference to that transaction, he deserved punishment as much or more than his companions.—8. In such circumstances, no man, no woman, no child are safe.—9. Every one of those pleasures that are pursued to excess, convert themselves into poison.—10. Thou, Lord, who hath permitted affliction to come upon us, shall deliver us from it in due time.—11. The sea appeared to be more than usually agitated.—12. By these attainments are the master honored and the scholar encouraged.—13. The temple consisted of one great and several smaller edifices.—14. Whether he will be learned or no, depends on his application.

A LIST OF IMPROPER EXPRESSIONS.

SELECTED CHIEFLY FROM PICKERING'S VOCABULARY.

Improper.

Proper.

The <i>alone</i> God.	The <i>alone</i> motive.	The <i>one</i> God.	The <i>only</i> motive.
I <i>an't</i> ; you <i>an't</i> ; he <i>an't</i> , &c.		I am not; you are not; he is not, &c.	
<i>Any manner</i> of means.		<i>Any</i> means.	
He was walking <i>back and forth</i> .		— backward and forward.	
His argument was <i>based</i> on this fact.		His argument was founded on this fact.	
The money was <i>ordered paid</i> .		The money was ordered to be paid.	
I <i>calculate</i> to leave town soon.		I intend to leave town soon.	
A <i>chunk</i> of bread.		A piece of bread.	

A clever house.	A good house.
He conducts well.	He conducts himself well, respectably.
He is <i>considerable</i> of a scholar.	He is a pretty good scholar.
His farm was <i>convenient</i> to mine.	His farm was contiguous to mine, close.
He is a <i>decent</i> scholar, writer.	He is a pretty good scholar, writer.
Her situation was distressing <i>to a</i> ————— was extremely distressing. <i>degree.</i>	————— was extremely distressing.
A total <i>destitution</i> of capacity.	A total want of capacity.
The United States, or <i>either</i> of them.	The United States, or any of them.
<i>Equally</i> as well; <i>as</i> good, &c.	Equally well, or just as well, &c.
Mr. A——— B———, Esq.	A——— B———, Esq.
I expect he must have died long ago.	I think he must have died, &c.
These things are in a bad <i>fix</i> .	————— in a bad state or condition.
Will you <i>fix</i> these things for me?	Will you put these things in order for me?
What do <i>folks</i> think of it?	What do people think of it?
Talents of the highest <i>grade</i> .	Talents of the highest order.
Do you love play? I <i>guess</i> I do.	————— there is no doubt of that.
We may <i>hope</i> the assistance of God.	We may hope for the assistance of God.
A <i>horse colt</i> ; a <i>mare colt</i> .	A colt; a filly.
It would <i>illy</i> accord.	It would would ill accord.
When did you come <i>in</i> town?	When did you come into town.
A <i>lengthy</i> sermon, &c.	A long sermon, &c.
Why don't you strike <i>like</i> I do?	————— as I do, or like as I do?

PUNCTUATION.

984. PUNCTUATION treats of the points and marks now used in writing.

985. The use of these points is to mark the divisions of a sentence, in order to show the meaning more clearly, and to serve as a guide in the pauses and inflections required in reading.

986. The principal marks used for this purpose are the following: the *comma* (,), the *semicolon* (;), the *colon* (:), the *period* (.), the *interrogation point* (?), the *exclamation point* (!), the *dash* (—), the *parenthesis* (), the *brackets* [].

987. With respect to the length of the pauses indicated by these marks, no very definite rule can be given—the same point in certain kinds of composition, and in certain positions, requiring sometimes a longer and sometimes a shorter pause.

988. As a general rule, the comma marks the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the colon, a pause double that of the semicolon; and the period, a pause still longer than that of the colon.

COMMA.

989. The comma is generally used in those parts of a sentence in which a short pause is required, and to mark a connection next in closeness to that which is unbroken.

SPECIAL RULES.

990. RULE 1.—In a short, simple sentence, the comma is not used ; as, “Hope is necessary in every condition of life.”

991. RULE 2.—When the logical subject of a verb is rendered long by the addition of several adjuncts, or other qualifying words, to the grammatical subject, a comma is usually inserted before the verb ; as, “A steady and undivided attention to one subject, is a sure mark of a superior mind.”

992. RULE 3.—In compound sentences, the clauses or members are usually separated by commas ; as, “Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them.” But when the clauses are short, or closely connected, the comma is not used ; as, “Revelation tells us *how* we may attain happiness.”

993. RULE 4.—Two words of the same class, connected by a conjunction expressed, do not admit a comma between them ; as, “The *earth* and the *moon* are planets”—“He is a *wise* and *prudent* man.”—“He *catches* and *arrests* the hours,—“He acts *prudently* and *vigorously*.” But when the conjunction is not expressed, a comma is inserted after each ; as, “*Reason, virtue, answer* one great aim.” But, of two adjectives, the last should not be separated by a comma from its noun ; as, “He is a *plain honest* man.” Nor can two adjectives be separated from each other by a comma when used together as a compound adjective ; as, “A *bright-red* color.”

994. RULE 5.—More than two words of the same class connected by conjunctions expressed or understood, have a comma after each ; as, “Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts.” But when the words connected are adjectives, the last should not be separated from its noun by a comma after it ; as, “David was a *wise, brave, and prudent* king.”

995. RULE 6.—Words used in pairs take a comma after each pair ; as, “Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, desolation and ruin, are the consequences of civil war.”

996. RULE 7—Nouns in opposition are separated by a comma, when the latter noun has several words or adjuncts connected with it ; as, “Paul, the apostle of the Gentiles.” But a single noun in apposition with another is not separated by a comma ; as, “Paul the apostle.”

997. RULE 8.—The nominative independent, and the nominative absolute (763), with the words dependent on them, are separated by commas from the rest of the sentence ; as, “My son, hear the instruction of thy father”—“I am, sir, your obedient servant.”—“The time of youth being precious, we should devote it to improvement.”—To confess the truth, I was in fault.”

998. RULE 9.—Comparative and antithetical clauses are separated by a comma ; thus, “As the heart panteth after the water-brooks, so doth my soul pant after thee.”—“Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not

dull." But when the comparison is short, and the connection intimate, the comma is not used; as, "Wisdom is better than rubies."

999. RULE 10.—The adverbs *nay*, *so*, *hence*, *again*, *first*, *secondly*, &c., when considered important, and particularly at the beginning of a sentence, should be separated from the context by a comma; as, "Nay, but we will serve the Lord." So also, *as* and *thus*, introducing an example or quotation; as, &c.

1000. RULE 11.—A relative with its clauses, explanatory of its antecedent, is usually separated from the rest of a sentence; as, "He who disregards the good opinion of the world, must be utterly abandoned," or, "He must be utterly abandoned, who disregards," &c. But when the relative, with its clause, is restrictive (267–2), and the connection so close that it can not be separated, the comma is not used; as, "Self-denial is the sacrifice which virtue must make."

1001. RULE 12.—*That*, used as a conjunction, and preceded by another clause, usually has a comma before it; as, "Be virtuous, that you may be happy." But when the clause introduced by *that*, is the subject or the object of the verb in the preceding clause, the comma is not inserted; as, "It is well *that* he should know it."—"I said *that* ye are gods."

1002. RULE 13.—When a verb is understood, a comma must be inserted; as, "Reading makes a full man; conversation, a ready man; and writing, an exact man."

1003. RULE 14.—*Words repeated* are separated by a comma; as, "Holy, holy, holy, is the Lord God Almighty."—"No, no, no, it can not be."

1004. RULE 15.—*Inverted sentences*, by throwing two or more words out of their regular connection, often require a comma; as, "To God, all things are possible." Not inverted, it would be, "All things are possible to God."—"His delight was, to assist the distressed." In the natural order, "To assist the distressed was his delight."

1005. RULE 16.—A short expression, in the manner of a quotation, is separated by commas; as, "Plutarch calls lying, *the vice of slaves*." Also the verbs *say*, *reply*, and the like, with their dependent words introducing a quotation or remark, are usually separated by commas; as, "The book of nature, *said he*, is open before thee."—"I say unto all, watch."

1006. RULE 17.—*Adjectives*, *participles*, *adverbs*, *infinitives*, &c., when separated from the word on which they depend, or, when accompanied by several adjuncts, commonly require commas to be inserted; as, "His talents, formed for great enterprises, could not fail of rendering him conspicuous."—"To conclude, I can only say this."—"We must not, *however*, neglect our duty."

SEMICOLON.

1007. The semicolon is used to separate the parts of a sentence which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma, and more closely than those which are separated by the colon.

GENERAL RULE.

1008. The parts of a sentence separated by a semicolon, should con-

tain in themselves a complete and independent proposition, but still having a connection with the other parts.

SPECIAL RULES.

1009. Rule 1.—When the first division of a sentence contains a complete proposition, but is followed by a clause added as an inference or reason, or to give some explanation, the part thus added must be separated by a semicolon; as, "Perform your duty faithfully; for this will procure you the blessing of Heaven."—"The orator makes the truth plain to his hearers; he awakens them; he excites them to action; he shows them their impending danger."—"Be at peace with many; nevertheless, have but few counsellors."

1010. Rule 2.—When several short sentences, complete in themselves, but having a slight connection in idea, follow in succession, they should be separated by a semicolon; as, "The epic poem recites the exploits of a hero; tragedy represents a disastrous event; comedy ridicules the vices and follies of mankind; pastoral poetry describes rural life; and elegy displays the tender emotions of the heart."

1011. Rule 3.—When a sentence consists of several members, and these members are complex, and subdivided by commas, the larger divisions of the sentence are sometimes separated by a semicolon; as, "As the desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in everything that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly."

1012. Rule 4.—When a general term has several others, as particulars, in apposition under it, the general term is separated from the particulars by a semicolon, and the particulars, from each other by commas; as, "Adjective pronouns are divided into four classes; possessive, demonstrative, distributive, and indefinite." But if the word *namely* be introduced, the separation is made by a comma only.

COLON.

1013. The colon is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon, but not so independent as to require a period.

SPECIAL RULES.

1014. Rule 1.—A colon is used when a sentence is complete in itself, in both sense and construction, but is followed by some additional remark or illustration, depending upon it in sense, though not in Syntax; as, "A brute arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass: in a few years he has all the endowments of which he is capable."—"Study to acquire a habit of thinking: nothing is more important."

1015. Rule 2.—When several short sentences follow in succession, each containing a complete sense in itself, but all having a common dependence on some *subsequent* clause; these sentences are separated from the subsequent clause by a colon, and from each other by a semicolon; as, "That Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible

resources in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries: *these* are among the assertions of philosophers."

1016. RULE 3.—Either a colon or semicolon may be used when an example, a quotation, or a speech, is introduced; as, "Always remember this ancient maxim; 'Know thyself.'"—"The Scriptures give us an amiable representation of the Deity in these words: 'God is love.'"

1017. RULE 4.—The insertion or omission of a conjunction before the concluding member of a sentence, frequently determines the use of the colon or semicolon. When the conjunction is not expressed before the concluding member, which would otherwise be separated by a semicolon, the colon is used; but when the conjunction is expressed, the semicolon; as, "Apply yourself to learning: it will redound to your honor."—"Apply yourself to learning; for it will redound to your honor."

PERIOD.

1018. Sentences which are complete in sense, and not connected in either meaning or grammatical construction, are separated by a period; thus, "Fear God. Honor the king. Have charity toward all men."

1019. But when short sentences are connected in meaning, but not in construction, they are separated by a semicolon (1010).

1020. Long sentences, if complete, even though grammatically connected by conjunctions, often insert a period (563); thus, "He who lifts up himself to the notice and observation of the world, is, of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. For he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part."

1021. A period must be used at the end of all books, chapters, sections, &c.; also after all abbreviations; as, A. D., M. A., Art. II., Obs. 3., J. Smith, &c.

INTERROGATION.

1022. A question is regarded as a complete sentence, and the interrogation point as equal to the period.

1023. The note of interrogation is always put at the end of a *direct* question; as, "What is truth?" But the *indirect* question does not require the interrogation point; as, "Pilate inquired what is truth."

NOTE.—Printers are generally the best punctuators, as they follow a uniform system. It is, therefore, for the most part, best, in preparing matter for the press, to leave this matter to them, except where the meaning intended may not be clearly perceived without the punctuation.

OTHER CHARACTERS USED IN WRITING.

1024. The *Dash* (—) is used where the sentence breaks off abruptly; also, to denote a significant pause—an unexpected turn in the sentiment—or that the first clause is common to all the rest, as in this definition.

1025. The note of *Exclamation* (!) is used after expressions of sudden

emotion of any kind ; also, in invocations or addresses ; as, "Eternity ! thou pleasing, dreadful thought." *Oh* has the mark immediately after it, or after the next word ; as, "Oh ! that he would come." But when *O* is used, the note is placed after some intervening words ; as, "O my friends !"

1026. *Parenthesis* () includes a clause inserted in the body of a sentence, in order to some useful or necessary information or remark, but which may be omitted without injuring the construction of the sentence ; as, "Know ye not, brethren (for I speak to them that know the law), how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth." In reading, the parenthetic part is distinguished by a lower or altered tone of voice. When the clause is short, and accords with the general tenor of the sentence, commas are now generally used instead of parenthesis ; as,

"Thou sluggish power, if power thou be,
All destitute of energy."

The use of parentheses should be avoided as much as possible.

1027. *Brackets* [] are properly used to enclose a word or phrase interpolated for the purpose of explanation, correction, or supplying a deficiency in a sentence quoted or regarded as such, and which did not belong to the original composition ; thus, it is said, "The wisest men [and, it might be added, the best too] are not exempt from human frailty."

1028. The *Apostrophe* (') is used when a letter or letters are omitted ; as, *e'er* for *ever*, *tho'* for *though* ; or to mark the possessive case.

1029. *Quotation marks* (" ") are put at the beginning and end of a passage quoted from an author in his own words, or to mark a passage regarded as a quotation.

1030. The *Hyphen* (-) is used to connect compound words which are not permanent compounds, as, *lap-dog* : also at the end of a line, to show that the rest of the word not completed is at the beginning of the next line.

1031. *Section* (§) is used to divide a discourse or chapter into portions.

1032. *Paragraph* (¶) was formerly used to denote the beginning of a new paragraph.

1033. The *Brace* ({ }) is used to connect words which have one common term, or three lines in poetry having the same rhyme, called a *triplet*.

1034. *Ellipsis* (—) is used when some letters are omitted ; as, *K—g* for *King*. Several asterisks are sometimes used for the same purpose ; as, *K***g*.

1035. The *Caret* (^) is used to show that some word is either omitted or interlined.

1036. The *Index* (~~☞~~) is used to point out anything remarkable.

1037. The vowel marks are : the *Diaeresis* ("), on the last of two concurrent vowels, showing that they are not to be pronounced as a diphthong ; the *Acute accent* (') ; the *Grave* (`) ; the *Long sound* (-) ; the *Short sound* (~).

1038. The marks of reference are : The *Asterisk* (*) ; the *Obelisk* or *Dagger* (†) ; the *Double Dagger* (‡) ; the *Parallels* (||). Sometimes, also, the § and ¶. Also small letters or figures which refer to notes at the foot of the page.

FIGURES.

1039. A FIGURE, in grammar, is some derivation from the *ordinary form*, or *construction*, or *application* of words in a sentence, for the purpose of greater precision, variety, or elegance of expression.

1040. There are three kinds of Figures ; viz., of *Etymology*, of *Syntax*, and of *Rhetoric*. The first and the second refer to the *form* of words, or to their *construction*; and the last to their *application*.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

1041. A figure of *Etymology* is a departure from the *usual* or *simple form* of words, merely.

1042. Of these, the most important are *eight* ; viz., *A-phær-e-sis*, *Prosthe-sis*, *Syn-co pe*, *A-poc-o-pe*, *Par-a-gog-ge*, *Di-ær-e-sis*, *Syn-ær-e-sis*, and *Tme-sis*.

1. *Aphæresis* is the elision of a syllable from the beginning of a word ; as, *gainst*, *'gan*, *'bove*, *'neath*, for *against*, *began*, *above*, *beneath*.

2. *Prosthetic* is the prefixing of a syllable to a word ; as, *adown*, *agoing*, &c., for *down*, *going*, &c.

3. *Syncope* is the elision of a letter or syllable, usually a short one, from the middle of a word ; as, *med'cine*, *sp'rít*, *e'en*, for *medicine*, *spirit*, *even*,

4. *Apocope* is the elision of a letter or syllable from the end of a word ; as, *th'o'*, for *though*, *th'* for *the*.

5. *Paragoge* is the annexing of a syllable to the end of a word ; as, *deary*, for *dear*.

6. *Diaeresis* is the division of two concurrent vowels into different syllables, usually marked thus (") on the second vowel ; as, *coöperate*, *aërial*,

7. *Synæresis* is the joining of two syllables into one, in either orthography or pronunciation ; as, *dost*, *seest*, for *doest*, *seëst*, or, *loved*, *learned*, pronounced in one syllable instead of two, *lov-ed*, *learn-ed*.

8. *Tmesis* is separating the parts of a compound word by an intervening term ; as, “ *What time soever* ”—“ *On which side soever* ”—“ *To us ward* ”.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

1043. A figure of *Syntax* is a deviation from the usual *construction* of words in a sentence, used for the sake of greater beauty or force.

1044. Of these, the most important are *Ellipsis*, *Pleonasm*, *Syllepsis*, *Enallagé*, *Hyperbaton*.

1. *Ellipsis* is the omission of a word or words necessary to the full

construction of a sentence, but not necessary to convey the idea intended (977). Such words are said to be understood; as, "The men, women, and children," for "The men, *the* women, and *the* children."

2. *Pleonasm* is the using of more words than are necessary to the full construction of a sentence, to give greater force or emphasis to the expression; as, "The boy, oh! where was *he*?"

3. *Syllepsis* is an inferior species of personification, by which we conceive the sense of words otherwise than the words import, and construe them according to the sense conceived. Thus, of the sun, we say, "*He* shines"—of a ship, "*She* sails" (130).

4. *Enallagē* is the use of one part of speech for another, or of one modification of a word for another; as, an adjective for an adverb, thus: "They fall *successive*, and *successive* rise," for *successively*; the use of *we* and *you* in the plural, to denote an individual, &c. (245); the use of one case for another; as, "than *whom*," for than *who* (966).

5. *Hyperbaton* is the transposition of words and clauses in a sentence, to give variety, force, and vivacity, to the composition; as, "Now come we to the last,"—"A man *he* was to all the country dear."—"He wanders earth around."

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

1045. A figure of *Rhetoric* is a deviation from the ordinary *application* of words in speech, to give animation, strength, and beauty, to the composition. These figures are sometimes called *tropes*.

1046. Of these, the most important are the following, viz.:—

Personification,	Hyperbole,	Climax,
Simile,	Irony,	Exclamation,
Metaphor,	Metonymy,	Interrogation,
Allegory,	Synecdoche,	Paralepsis,
Vision,	Antithesis,	Apostrophe.

1. *Personification*, or *prosopopœia*, is that figure of speech by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, "The sea saw it and fled."

2. A *simile* expresses the resemblance that one object bears to another; as, "He shall be like a tree planted by the rivers of water."

3. A *metaphor* is a simile without the sign (*like*, or *as*, &c.) of comparison; as, "He shall be a tree planted by," &c.

4. An *allegory* is a continuation of several metaphors, so connected in sense as to form a kind of parable or fable. Thus, the people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine: "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt," &c., Ps. lxxx. 8-17. Of this style are *Æsop's Fables*, *Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress,"* &c.

5. *Vision*, or *imagery*, is a figure by which the speaker represents past events, or the objects of his imagination, as actually present to his senses; as, "Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy."—"The combat thickens; on, ye braves!"

6. An *hyperbole* is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they really are. Thus, David says of Saul and Jonathan, “*They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions.*”

7. Irony is a figure by which we mean quite the contrary of what we say; as, when Elijah said to the worshippers of Baal, “*Cry aloud, for he is a god,*” &c.

8. A *metonymy* is a figure by which we put the cause for the effect, or the effect for the cause; as, when we say, “*He reads Milton,*” we mean Milton’s works. “*Gray hairs* should be respected”—that is, *old age*.

9. *Synecdoche* is the putting of a part for the whole, or the whole for a part, a definite number for an indefinite, &c.; as, the *waves* for the *sea*, the *head* for the *person*, and *ten thousand* for any great number. This figure is nearly allied to *metonymy*.

10. *Antithesis*, or *contrast*, is a figure by which different or contrary objects are contrasted, to make them show one another to advantage. Thus, Solomon contrasts the timidity of the wicked with the courage of the righteous, when he says, “*The wicked flee when no man pursueth, but the righteous are bold as a lion.*”

11. *Climax*, or *amplification*, is the heightening of all the circumstances of an object or action which we wish to place in a strong light; as, “Who shall separate us from the love of Christ? *Shall tribulation, or distress, or persecution, or famine, or nakedness, or peril, or sword?* Nay,” &c. See also Rom. viii. 38, 39.

12. *Exclamation* is a figure that is used to express some strong emotion of the mind; as, “*Oh! the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God!*”

13. *Interrogation* is a figure by which we express the emotion of our mind, and enliven our discourse, by proposing questions; thus, “*Hath the Lord said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it good?*”

14. *Paralepsis*, or *omission*, is a figure by which the speaker pretends to conceal what he is really declaring and strongly enforcing; as, “*Horatius was once a very promising young gentleman, but in process of time he became so addicted to gaming, not to mention his drunkenness and debauchery, that he soon exhausted his estate, and ruined his constitution.*”

15. *Apostrophe* is a turning off from the subject to address some other person or thing; as, “*Death is swallowed up in victory. O Death, where is thy sting?*”

1047. Besides the deviations from the usual form and construction of words, noted under the figures of Etymology and Syntax, there are still others, which can not be classed under proper heads, and which, from being used mostly in poetic composition, are commonly called—

POETIC LICENSES.

1048. These are such as the following:—

1. In poetry, words, idioms, and phrases, are often used, which would be inadmissible in prose; as—

"A man he was to all the country dear,
And *passing* rich with forty pounds a year."
 "By fountain clear, or spangled starlight *sheen*."
 "Shall I receive by gift, what of my own,
When and where *likes* me best, I can command ?"
 "Thy voice we hear, and thy *bethests* obey."
 "The *whiles*, the vaulted shrine around,
Seraphic wires were heard to sound."
 "On the first friendly bank he *throws him* down."
 "I'll seek the solitude he sought,
And *stretch* me where he lay."
 "Not Hector's *self* should want an equal foe."

2. More violent and peculiar ellipses are allowable in poetry than in prose; as—

"*Suffice*, to-night, these orders to obey."
 "*Time* is our tedious song should here have ending."
 "For is there aught in sleep *can* charm the wise ?"
 "'T is Fancy, in her fiery car,
Transports me to the thickest war."
 "*Who* never fasts, no banquet e'er enjoys."
 "*Bliss* is the same in subject as in king,
In who obtain defence, or who defend."

3. In poetry, adjectives are often elegantly connected with nouns which they do not strictly qualify; as—

"The *ploughman* homeward plods his *weary way*."
 "The *tenants* of the *warbling shade*."
 "And *drowsy* tinklings lull the distant *folds*."

4. The rules of grammar are often violated by the poets. A noun and its pronoun are often used in reference to the same verb; as—

"*It* ceased, the melancholy *sound*."
 "*My banks* *they* are furnished with bees."

5. An adverb is often admitted between the verb and *to*, the sign of the infinitive; as—

"To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell;
To *slowly* trace the forest's shady scenes."

6. A common poetic license consists in employing *or* and *nor* instead of *either* and *neither*; as—

————— "And first
Or on the listed plain, or stormy sea."

"Nor grief nor fear shall break my rest."

7. Intransitive verbs are often made transitive, and adjectives used like abstract nouns; as—

"The lightnings *flash* a larger curve."

"Still in harmonious intercourse, they lived
The rural day, and *talked* the flowing heart."

"Meanwhile, whate'er of *beautiful* or *new*,
By chance or search, was offered to his view,
He scanned with curious eye."

8. Greek, Latin, and other foreign idioms, are allowable in poetry, though inadmissible in prose; as,—

"He *knew* to sing, and *build* the lofty rhyme."

"*Give* me to seize rich Nestor's shield of gold."

"*There are*, who, deaf to mad ambition's call,
Would shrink to hear the obstreperous trump of fame."

"Yet to their general's voice they all obeyed."

————— "Never since *created man*,
Met such embodied force."

1049. Such are a few of the licenses allowed to poets, but denied to prose writers; and among other purposes which they obviously serve, they enhance the pleasure of reading poetic composition, by increasing the boundary of separation set up, especially in our language, between it and common prose. Were such licenses not permitted in poetry, the difficulty attendant upon this species of composition would probably be so great, that hardly any person would attempt the arduous task of writing verse.

EXERCISES.

Point out, name, and define, the figures of Etymology in the following phrases and sentences:—

His courage 'gan fail.—Bend 'gainst the steepy hill thy breast.—'T was mine, 't is his.—Vain tamp'ring has but fostered his disease.—Enchained he lay, a monster.—What way soe'er he turned, it met him.—Th' aërial pencil forms the scene anew.

Point out, name, and define, the figures of Syntax in the following sentences:—

The law I gave to nature him forbids.—So little mercy shows who needs so much.—My head is filled with dew, and my locks with the drops of the night.—Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow.—He that glorieth, let him glory in the Lord.

Point out, name, and define, the figures of Rhetoric in the following sentences:—

As thy day is, so shall thy strength be.—Without discipline, the favorite, like a neglected forester, runs wild.—Thy name is as ointment poured forth.—The Lord God is a sun and shield.—I saw their chief, tall as a rock of ice, his spear the blasted fir.—At which the universal host sent up a shout that tore hell's concave.

P A R T I V.

P R O S O D Y.

1050. PROSODY treats of *Elocution* and *Versification*.

ELOCUTION.

1051. ELOCUTION is correct pronunciation, or the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking.

1052. In order to read and speak with grace and effect, attention must be paid to the proper *pitch* of the voice, the *accent* and *quantity* of the syllables, and to *emphasis*, *pauses*, and *tones*.

1053.—1. In the PITCH and management of the voice, it should be neither too high nor too low; it should be distinct and clear; the utterance neither too quick nor too slow, and neither too varied nor too monotonous.

1054.—2. ACCENT is the laying of a particular stress of voice on a certain syllable in a word, as the syllable *vir-* in *vir' tue*, *vir' tuous*.

1055.—3. The QUANTITY of a syllable is the relative time which is required to pronounce it. A long syllable, in quantity, is equal to two short ones. Thus, *pine*, *tube*, *note*, require to be sounded as long again as *pin*, *tub*, *not*. In English versification, an accented syllable is *long*, an unaccented one is *short*.

1056.—4. EMPHASIS means that greater stress of the voice which we lay on some particular word or words, in order to mark their superior importance in the sentence, and thereby the better to convey the idea intended by the writer or speaker.

1057.—5. PAUSES or rests, are cessations of the voice, in order to enable the reader or speaker to take breath; and to give the hearer a distinct perception of the meaning, not only of each sentence, but of the whole discourse (985). For poetic pauses, see (1115—1118).

1058.—6. TONES consist in the modulation of the voice, and the notes, or variations of sound, which we employ in speaking, to express the different sentiments, emotions, or feelings, intended.

* * * A full consideration of these topics, in a work of this kind, would be as impracticable as it would be out of place, since it would require a volume for that purpose. They are fully treated of and exemplified in works on elocution—a subject which is, or should be, taken up as a separate branch of study.

VERSIFICATION.

1059. **VERSIFICATION** is the art of arranging words into poetical lines, or *verses*.

1060. A *Verse*, or *Poetical Line*, consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to fixed rules.

1061. A *Couplet*, or *Distich*, consists of two lines or verses taken together, whether rhyming with each other or not. A *Triplet* consists of three lines rhyming together.

1062. A *Stanza* is a combination of several verses or lines, varying in number according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem or song. This is often incorrectly called a *verse*.

1063. *Rhyme* is the similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines arranged in a certain order. Poetry, the verses of which have this similarity, is sometimes called *Rhyme*.

1064. *Blank Verse* is the name given to that species of poetry which is without rhyme.

FEET.

1065. *Feet* are the smaller portions into which a line is divided—each of which consists of two or more syllables, combined according to accent.

1066. In English versification, an *accented* syllable is accounted *long*; an *unaccented* syllable, *short*. In the following examples, a straight line (—) over a syllable shows that it is accented, and a curved line, or *breve* (˘), that it is unaccented.

1067. Monosyllables, which, when alone, are regarded as without accent, often receive it when placed in a poetical line, and are long or short, according as they are with or without the accent. Thus—

“To rōūse hīm with thē spūr ˘nd reīn,
With mōre thān rāptūre’s rāy.”

In the ancient languages, each syllable has a certain quantity, long or short, independent of accent, for which there are certain definite rules. In this they differ widely from the English.

1068. *Metre*, or *Measure*, is the arrangement of a certain number of poetical feet in a verse or line.

1. When a line has the proper metre, or number of feet, it is called *A catalectic*.

2. When it is deficient, it is called *Catalectic*.

3. When it has a redundant syllable, it is called *Hypercatalectic*, or *Hypermeter*.

1069. A line consisting of one foot is called *monometer*; of two, *dimeter*;

of three, *trimeter*; of four, *tetrameter*; of five, *pentameter*; of six, *hexameter*; of seven, *heptameter*.

1070. Scanning is dividing a verse into the feet of which it is composed.

1071. All feet in poetry are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of *three*, as follows:—

I. FEET OF TWO SYLLABLES.

1. An Iambus ˘ - ; as, dēfēnd.
2. A Trochee - ˘ ; as, nōblē.
3. A Spondee - - ; as, vāin mān.
4. A Pyrrhic ˘ ˘ ; as, ön ā (hill).

II. FEET OF THREE SYLLABLES.

1. An Anapæst ˘ ˘ - ; as, intērcēde.
2. A Dactyl - ˘ ˘ ; as, dūrāblē.
3. An Amphibrach ˘ - ˘ ; as, ābūndānt.
4. A Tribach ˘ ˘ ˘ ; as, (tol)ērāblē.

1072. Of all these, the *principal* are the *Iambus*, *Trochee*, *Anapæst*, and *Dactyl*. The other four feet are used chiefly in connection with these, in order to give variety to the measure.

1073. A *Trochee* has the first syllable accented, and the last unaccented; as, nōblē, mūsic.

1074. An *Iambus* has the first syllable unaccented, and the last accented; as, üdōre, dēfēnd.

1075. A *Spondee* has both the words or syllables accented; as, "vāin mān."

1076. A *Pyrrhic* has both the words or syllables unaccented; as, "ön ā (hill)."

1077. A *Dactyl* has the first syllable accented, and the two last unaccented; as, vīrtūōüs.

1078. An *Amphibrach* has the first and the last syllable unaccented, and the middle one accented; as, cōntēntmēnt.

1079. An *Anapæst* has the two first syllables unaccented, and the last accented; as, intērcēde.

1080. A *Tribach* has all its syllables unaccented; num | ērāblē.

1081. A verse is usually named from the name of the foot which predominates in it; thus, *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, &c.

I. IAMBIC VERSE

1082. An iambic verse consists of iambuses, and consequently has the accent on the *second*, *fourth*, *sixth*, &c., syllables. It has different metres, as follows:

1. *One foot, or Monometer*; as—

'Tis sweet
To mēet.

2. *Two feet, or Dimeter*; as—

With thēe | wě rīse,
With thee | we reign.

3. *Three feet, or Trimeter*; as—

In plā | cēs fār | ör neār,
Or fa | mous, or | obscure.

4. *Four feet, or Tetrameter*; as—

Hōw sleep | thē brāve, | whō sīnk | tō rēst,
By all | their coun | try's wish | es blest.

5. *Five feet, or Pentameter*; as—

Fōr mē | yoür trib | ūtā | ry stōres cōmbīne ;
Crea | tion's heir, | the world, | the world | is mine.

6. *Six feet, or Hexameter*; as—

Hīs heārt | ūs sād, | hīs hōpe | ūs gōne | hīs light | ūs pāssed ;
He sits | and mourns, | in si | lent grief, | the ling | ring day.

7. *Seven feet, or Heptameter*; as—

Whēn all | thy mēr | cīes, O | my Gōd, | my rīs | ūng sōul | sūrvēys,
Transport|ed with|the view|I'm lost,|in won|der, love,|and praise.

1083. Each of these kinds of iambic verse, may have an additional short syllable, and so be called *iambic hypermeter*; thus—

1. Dīsdāin | ūng.

2. Upon | a moun | taīn.

3. When on | her Ma | ker's bo | sōm.

4. But hail, | thou god | ess, sage | and ho | ly.

5. What slēn | der youth | bedewēd | with liq | uid o | dōr.

6. Whose front|can brave|the storm,|but will|not rear|the flow|ēr.

7. To scat|tero'er|his path|of fame|bright hues|of gem|like show|ērs.

1084. It often happens that a trochee, or sometimes a spondee, is admitted in place of the first foot, which gives a pleasing variety to the verse; as—

Plānēts | ānd sūns | run law | lēss throūgh | thē sky.

Fierce, hārd | y, prōud, | in cōn | sciōus frēe | dōm bōld.

1085. Iambic Monometer, Dimeter, and Trimeter.—Of these metres there is no regular form, but they are sometimes introduced into stanzas.

1086. Iambic Tetrameter.—This verse may extend through a considerable number of verses.

1087. Iambic Pentameter.—Iambic verse of five feet is called *Heroic*

verse. Such is Milton's "Paradise Lost," &c. By the admission of trochees anapaests, &c., in certain places, it is capable of many varieties.

1088. Iambic Hexameter.—A verse of six feet is called *Alexandrine*.

1089. The *Elegiac* stanza consists of four pentameter lines rhyming, alternately; as—

Thĕ cūr | fĕw tōlls | thĕ knĕll | öf pārt | īng dāy,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea ;
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

1090. The *Spencerian* stanza (which takes its name from the poet Spencer) consists of eight pentameter or heroic verses, followed by one hexameter, or *Alexandrine* verse. This is the stanza in which the "Fairie Qucene" is written.

1091. Iambic Heptameter.—Iambic verses of seven feet, formerly written in one line, are now commonly divided into two, one of *four*, and one of *three* feet; as—

Whĕn ḁll | thy mēr | cīes, O | my Gōd,
My ris | ing soul | surveys,
Transport | ed with | the view, | I'm lost,
In won | der, love, | and praise.

1092. This is called *common metre*. Stanzas having three feet in the first, second, and fourth lines, and *four* in the third, are called *short metre*; and those consisting of four lines, each containing *four* feet, are called *long metre*.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

1093. *Trochaic* verse consists of Trochees, and consequently has the accent on the *first, third, fifth, &c.*, syllables. It has different metres, as follows:—

1. *One foot, or Monometer*; as—

Stāyīng,
Plāying.

2. *Two feet, or Dimeter*; as—

Rīch thĕ | treāsūre,
Swēet thĕ | pleāsūre.

3. *Three feet, or Trimeter*; as—

Gō whĕre | glōry | wāits thēe ;
Būt whĕn | fāme ē | lātes thēe.

4. *Four feet, or Tetrameter*; as—

Maids āre | sīttīng | by thĕ | foūntaīn,
Brīght thĕ | mōon o'er | yōndēr | moūntaīn.

5. *Five feet*, or *Pentameter* (very uncommon) ; as—

In thē | dārk, ānd | glōomy | vällēy,
Satyrs, | by the | brooklet, | love to | dally.

6. *Six feet*, or *Hexameter* ; as—

On ā | moūntaīn, | strētched bē | neāth ā | hoāry | willōw,
Lāy ā | shēphērd | swāin, ānd | viewed thē | röllīng | billōw,

- 1094.** Each of these may take an additional long syllable, and so become *hypercatalectic*, or *hypermeter* ; thus—

1. Tūmūlt | ceāse,
Sink tō | peāce.

2. In the | days of | öld,
Fables | plainly | tōld.

3. Restless | mortals | toil for | nōught,
Bliss in | vain from | earth is | sōught.

4. Idle | after | dinner, | in his | chāir,
Sat a | farmer, | ruddy, | fat, and | fāir.

5. Hail to | thee, blithe | spirit ! | bird thou | never | wert,
That from | heaven, or | near it, | pourest | thy full | heart.

6. Night and | morning | were at | meeting, | over | Water | lōo,
Cocks had|sung their|earliest|greeting|faint and|low they|crēw.

- 1095.** In the last two forms, each line is usually divided into two, thus—

5. Hail to | thee, blithe | spirit !
 Bird thou | never | wert.

6. Night and | morning | were at | meeting,
 Over | Water | loo.

- 1096.** Trochaic verse, with an additional long syllable at the end, is the same as Iambic verse, wanting a short syllable at the beginning.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

- 1097.** *Anapaestic* verse, consists chiefly of *anapæsts*, and, when pure, has the accent on every third syllable. It has different metres, as follows:—

1. *One foot*, or *Monometer* , as—

Büt toō fär,
Eäch prōud stär.

2. *Two feet*, or *dimeter* ; as—

Büt hís coū | räge 'gän fāil,
or no arts | could avail.

3. *Three feet, or Trimeter*; as—

O yē wōods ! | sprēad yoür brānch | ēs āpāce,
 To your deep | est recess | es I fly,
 I would hide | with the beasts | of the chase,
 I would van | ish from ev | ery eye.

4. *Four feet, or Tetrameter*; as—

Măy I gōv | ērn my pāss | iōns wīth āb | sōlūte swāy,
 And grow wis | er and bet | ter as life | wears away.

1098. Of these, the *first* is ambiguous, for by placing an accent on the first syllable, it becomes a *trochaic monometer hypermeter*.

1099. The *second* sometimes admits an additional short syllable at the end; as—

On thē rōad | by thē vāl | lēy,
 As he wand | ered lament | īng ;
 To the green | of the for | ēst,
 He returned | him repenting.

1100. The *third* is a very pleasing measure, and is much used in both solemn and cheerful subjects, but it seldom takes an additional syllable.

1101. The *fourth*, or *tetrameter*, admits an additional syllable, which often has a pleasing effect; as—

On the warm | cheek of youth | smiles and ros | es are blend | ing.

DACTYLIC VERSE.

1102. *Dactylic verse* consists chiefly of dactyls, and has the following varieties:—

1. *One foot, or monometer*; as—

Feārfully,
 Teārfully.

2. *Two feet, or dimeter*; as—

Frēe frōm sā | tiēty,
 Care and anx | iety,
 Charms in va | riety
 Fall to his | share.

3. *Three feet, or trimeter*; as—

Weārīng ā | wāy īn hīs | yōuthfūlnēss,
 Loveliness, | beauty, and | truthfulness.

1103. Each of these sometimes takes an additional long syllable, and so becomes *hypermeter*; as—

1. Ovēr ā | mead,
 Prickīng hīs | steed.
2. Cōvēred wīth | snōw wās thē | vale,
 Sad was the | shriek of the | gale,
 When to the | night, woful | wail
 Rose to the | skies—to the | skies !

3. Time īt hās | pāssed, ānd thē | lādy is | pale,
Pale as the | lily that | lolls on the | gale.

1104. By combining these kinds, examples of *tetrameter*, *pentameter*, and even *hexameter*, are obtained; but they are seldom used.

1105. A dactylic verse seldom ends with a dactyl; it more commonly adds a long syllable, sometimes a trochee, as in the following lines:—

Brightēst ānd | běst ūf thē | sōns ūf thē | mōrnīng,
Dawn on our | darkness and | lend us thine | aid.

1106. The following is an example of *dactyls* and *spondees* alternately:—

Grēen īn thē | wildwōod | prōudly thē | tāll trēe | lōoks ḥn thē |
brōwn plain.

The following is an example of pure dactylic hexameter:

Ovēr thē | vāllēy, wīth | spēed like thē | wind, āll thē | stēeds wēre
ā—gāllōping.

1107. Considering the beauty of this kind of verse, and its peculiar adaptedness to gay and cheerful movements, it is surprising that it has not been more cultivated.

MIXED VERSES.

1108. Scarcely any poem is perfectly regular in its feet. Iambic verse, for example, sometimes admits other feet into the line, particularly at the beginning, as has been already noticed. The following are examples of iambic lines with different feet introduced:—

Trochee. Frōphēt | of plagues, | forev | er bod | ing ill !

Dactyl. Mūrmūring, | and with | him fled|the shades|of night.

Anapæst. Before | all tem | plēs thē ūp | right heart | and pure.

Pyrrhic. Brought death | ūntō | the world | and all—our wo.

Tribrach. And thun—ders down | impet—ūōüs tō | the plain.

1109. In *iambic* verse, the initial short syllable is sometimes omitted; and the verse becomes *trochaic* with an additional long syllable.

1110. In *trochaic* verse, the initial long syllable is sometimes omitted; and the line becomes *iambic* with an additional short syllable.

1111. If the two short syllables are omitted at the beginning of an *anapæstic* line, it becomes *dactylic* with a long syllable added. So—

1112. If the initial long syllable is omitted in a *dactylic* verse, it becomes *anapæstic* with two short syllables added.

1113. A pleasing movement is produced by intermingling *iambuses* and *anapæstic*, as in the following lines:—

“ I come, | I come ! | yē hāve cālled | me long ;
I come | o’er thē moūn | taīns with light | and song !
Yē māy trāce | my steps | o’er thē wāk | ēnīng eārth,
By thē winds | which tell | ūf thē vī | ölet’s birth,
By thē prīm | rose stars | ūf thē shād | öwy grāss,
By thē grēen | leaves op | ening | ās I pāss.”

1114. In odes and lyric pieces, verses of different kinds and different metres or measures are often intermingled, after the manner of the ancient choral odes, with a pleasing effect, "Alexander's Feast," Collins' "Ode to the Passions," &c., are examples.

POETIC PAUSES.

1115. Besides the usual pauses required to mark the sense in reading, and which may be called sentential pauses, indicated by the punctuation, there are other pauses in poetic composition, required by, and necessary to give proper effect to, the movement of the line.

1116. These are chiefly the *Final* pause and the *Cœsural* pause.

1117. The *final* pause is required at the end of every line of poetry, even where there is no sentential pause. When that is the case, it consists in a brief suspension of the voice, without any change in its tone or pitch. When a sentential pause occurs at the end of the line, as it does very often, it takes the place of, and supersedes the *final* pause.

1118. The *cœsural* pause is a suspension of the voice somewhere in the line itself, for which no rule can be given, but which will always be manifest when poetry is well read. It does not occur in very short lines. In lines of some length, it generally occurs near the middle; sometimes, however, nearer the beginning, and sometimes nearer the end; often in the middle of a foot, but never in the middle of a word. Sometimes, besides this, a sort of *demicœsural* pause is required, to give full effect to the expression. The following lines furnish examples of the *cœsural* pause in different parts of the line, and also of the *demicœsural* pause. The former is marked (") and the latter ('):—

"The steer and lion" at one crib shall meet,
And harmless serpents" lick the pilgrim's feet."

"The crested basilisk" and speckled snake."

"And on the sightless eyeballs" pour the day."

—————"But not to me returns
Day," or the sweet approach of even or morn."

"No sooner had the Almighty ceased," but all
The multitude of angels" with a shout,
Loud" as from numbers without numbers," sweet
As from blest voices" uttering joy."

"Warms' in the sun," refreshes' in the breeze,
Glows' in the stars," and blossoms' in the trees;
Lives' through all life," extends' through all extent,
Spreads' undivided," operates' unspent."

EXERCISES.

As exercises in scanning, lines or stanzas from any poetical work may be selected.

COMPOSITION.

1119. COMPOSITION is the art of expressing our sentiments in spoken or written language. It is of two kinds, *Prose* and *Poetry*.

1120. *Prose* compositions are those in which the thoughts are expressed in the natural order, in common and ordinary language.

1121. *Poetic* compositions are those in which the thoughts and sentiments are expressed in measured verse, in loftier and more inverted style, by words and figures selected and arranged so as to please the ear, and captivate the fancy.

1122. In both of these, speech or discourse is either *direct* or *indirect*.

1123. *Direct* discourse is that in which a writer or speaker delivers his own sentiments.

1124. *Indirect* or *oblique* discourse is that in which a person relates, in his own language, what another speaker or writer said.

1125. In the *first*, when the speaker refers to himself, he uses the *first* person *I* or *we*. When he refers to the person or persons addressed, he uses the *second* person *thou*, *you*, &c.

1126. In the *second* or *indirect* discourse, whether the speaker is reported as referring to himself, or to those whom he addresses, the *third* person is used in either case; as, *he*, *she*, *they*, &c. An example will best illustrate the distinction. Thus:

1127. DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Then Paul stood in the midst of Mars-hill and said: "Ye men of Athens, I perceive that in all things ye are too superstitious; for as I passed by and beheld your devotions, I found an altar with this inscription: 'To THE UNKNOWN God.' Whom, therefore, ye ignorantly worship, him declare I unto you."

1128. INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

The same, reported in indirect or oblique discourse, would run thus:—

Then Paul, standing on Mars hill, told the men of Athens, *he* perceived that in all things *they* were too superstitious; for as *he* passed by and beheld *their* devotions, *he* found an altar with this inscription: "To THE UNKNOWN God." Whom, therefore, *they* ignorantly worshipped, him declared *he* unto them.

1129. When the reporter, the speaker reported, and the person or persons addressed, are different in gender or number, there is no danger of ambiguity. But when in these respects they are the same, ambiguity is unavoidable, from the same pronoun being used in the progress of the discourse, to designate different persons. Hence, to prevent mistakes, it is often necessary to insert the name or designation of the person meant by the pronoun. An example will best illustrate this also:—

"Then the son went to his father and said to him, [*direct*] 'I have sinned against Heaven and in thy sight.'"

"Then the son went to his father and said to him, [*indirect*] that he (the son) had sinned against Heaven and in his (his father's) sight."

It will at once be perceived, that, without the words enclosed in brackets, for explanation, it would be impossible to tell whether by the word *he*, the *father* or the *son* was intended; so also with respect to the word *his*. Hence, when by the *indirect* discourse, ambiguity is unavoidable, it is generally better to have recourse to the *direct* form, and quote the writer's or speaker's own words, as in (1127).

1130. The principal kinds of *prose* composition are—*narrative, letters, memoirs, history, biography, essays, philosophy, sermons, novels, speeches, and orations.*

1131. The principal kinds of *poetical* composition are—the *epigram, the epitaph, the sonnet, pastoral poetry, didactic poetry, satires, descriptive poetry, elegy, lyric poetry, dramatic poetry, and epic poetry.*

THE USE OF GRAMMAR IN COMPOSITION.

1132. To speak and write with propriety, in every species of composition, is an attainment of no small importance: and to lead to this attainment is the business of grammar. The grammar of a language is just a compilation of rules and directions, agreeably to which that language is spoken or written. These rules, however, are not the invention of the grammarian, nor dependent on his authority for their validity. As it is the business of the philosopher, not to *make* a law of Nature, nor to *dictate* how her operations should be performed, but, by close observation, to ascertain what those laws are, and to state them for the information of others; so the business of the grammarian is, not to *make* the laws of language, for language is before grammar, but to observe and note those principles, and forms and modes of speech, by which men are accustomed to express their sentiments, and to arrange the results of his observation into a system of rules for the guidance and assistance of others. It is obvious, then, that the ultimate principle or *test* to which the rules laid down by the grammarian must conform, is THE BEST USAGE.

1133. Hence, when the inquiry is whether a particular word or form of speech is *right, is good English*, the only question to be decided is, "Is it according to the *best usage?*" On this subject, however, it has been made a question, "What is the best usage?" The following sentiments, abridged from Dr. Crombie's work on English Etymology and Syntax, seem to be just, and comprehensive of this whole subject.

THE LAW OF LANGUAGE.

1134. The *usage* which gives law to language, in order to establish its authority, or to entitle its suffrage to our assent, must be in the first place *reputable*, by which is meant, not the usage of the court, nor great men, nor merely scientific men; but of those whose works are *esteemed by the public*, and who may therefore be denominated *reputable authors*,

1135. In the second place, this usage must be *national*. It must not be confined to this or that province or district. "Those," to use Campbell's apposite similitude, "who deviate from the beaten road may be incomparably more numerous than those who travel in it; yet, into whatever number of by-paths the former may be divided, there may not be found in any one of these tracks so many as travel in the king's highway."

1136. *Thirdly*, this usage must be *present*. It is difficult to fix with any precision what usage may in all cases be deemed *present*. It is perhaps in this respect different with different compositions. In general, words and forms of speech, which have been long disused, should not be employed. And so, on the contrary, the usage of the present day is not implicitly to be adopted. Mankind are fond of novelty, and there is a fashion in language as there is in dress. Whim, vanity, and affectation, delight in creating new words, and using new forms of phraseology. Now, to adopt every new-fangled upstart at its birth, would argue, not taste, nor judgment, but childish fondness for singularity and novelty. But should any of these maintain its ground, and receive the sanction of reputable usage, it must in that case be received.

1137. The usage, then which gives law to language, and which is generally denominated good usage, must be *reputable*, *national*, and *present*. It happens, however, that "good usage" is not always uniform in her decisions, and that in unquestionable authorities are found far different modes of expression. In such cases, the following CANONS, proposed by Dr. Campbell, will be of service in enabling to decide to which phraseology the preference ought to be given. They are given nearly in the words of the author :—

1138. CANON 1.—When the usage is divided as to any particular words or phrases, and when one of the expressions is susceptible of a *different* meaning, while the other admits of only *one* signification, the expression which is strictly *univocal* should be preferred.

1139. CANON 2.—In doubtful cases, *analogy* should be regarded.

1140. CANON 3.—When expressions are in other respects equal, that should be preferred which is *most agreeable to the ear*.

1141. CANON 4.—When none of the preceding rules take place, regard should be had to *simplicity*.

1142. But though no expression or mode of speech can be justified which is not sanctioned by usage, yet the converse does not follow, that every phraseology sanctioned by usage should be retained. In many such cases, custom may properly be checked by criticism, whose province it is, not only to remonstrate against the introduction of any word or phraseology which may be either unnecessary or contrary to analogy, but also to extrude whatever is reprehensible, though in general use. It is by this, her prerogative, that languages are gradually refined and improved. In exercising this authority, she can not pretend to degrade, instantly, any phraseology which she may deem objectionable; but she may, by repeated remonstrances, gradually effect its dismissal. Her decisions in such cases may be properly regulated by the following rules, laid down by the same author :—

1143. RULE 1.—All words and phrases, particularly harsh and not absolutely necessary, should be dismissed.

1144. RULE 2.—When the etymology plainly points to a different signification from what the word bears, propriety and simplicity require its dismissal.

1145. RULE 3.—When words become obsolete, or are never used but in particular phrases, they should be repudiated, as they give the style an air of vulgarity and caint, when this general disuse renders them obscure.

1146. RULE 4.—All words and phrases which, analyzed grammatically, include a solecism, should be dismissed.

1147. RULE 5.—All expressions which, according to the established rules of language, either have no meaning, or involve a contradiction, or, according to the fair construction of the words, convey a meaning different from the intention of the speaker, should be dismissed.

1148. In order to write any language with grammatical purity, three things are required :—

1. That the words be all of that language. The violation of this rule is called a *barbarism*.

2. That they be construed and arranged according to the rules of syntax in that language. A violation of this rule is called a *solecism*.

3. That they be employed in that sense which usage has annexed to them. A violation of this rule is called *impropriety*.

1149. A *barbarism* is an offence against lexicography. The *solecism* is an offence against the rules of syntax; and the *impropriety* is an offence against lexicography, by mistaking the meaning of words and phrases.

HINTS FOR CORRECT AND ELEGANT WRITING.

1150. Correct and elegant writing depends partly upon the choice of words, and partly upon the form and structure of sentences.

I. In so far as respects single words, the chief things to be observed are *purity*, *propriety*, and *precision*.

PURITY.

1151. Purity consists in the rejection of such words and phrases as are not strictly English, nor in accordance with the practice of good writers or speakers.

1. Avoid foreign words and modes of expression; as, "*Fraicheur*"—"politesse"—"He repents him of his folly."

2. Avoid obsolete and unauthorized words; as, *albeit*, *aforetime*, *inspector*, *judgmental*.

PROPRIETY.

1152. Propriety consists in the use of such words as are best adapted to express our meaning.

1. Avoid low and provincial expressions; as, "To get into a scrape."

2. In writing prose, reject words that are merely poetical; as, "This morn"—"The celestial orbs."

3. Avoid technical terms, unless you write to those who perfectly understand them.

4. Do not use the same word too frequently, or in different senses; as "The king communicated his intention to the minister, *who* disclosed it to the secretary, *who* made it known to the public."—"His own *reason* might have suggested better *reasons*."

5. Supply words that are wanting, and necessary to complete the sense. Thns, instead of "This action increased his former services" say, "This action increased the *merit* of his former services."

6. Avoid equivocal or ambiguous expressions; as, "His *memory* shall be lost on the earth."

7. Avoid unintelligible and inconsistent expressions; as, "I have an *opaque* idea of what you mean."

PRECISION.

1153. Precision rejects superfluous words.

1. Avoid tautology; as, "His *faithfulness* and *fidelity* were unequalled."

2. Observe the exact meaning of words accounted synonymous. Thus, instead of "Though his actions and intentions were good, he lost his *character*," say, "He lost his *reputation*."

II. With respect to sentences, *clearness*, *unity*, *strength*, and a proper application of the *figures of speech*, are necessary.

CLEARNESS.

1154. Clearness demands a proper arrangement of words.

1. Adverbs, relative pronouns, and explanatory phrases, must be placed as near as possible to the words which they affect, and in such a situation as the sense requires.

2. In prose, a poetic collocation must be avoided.

3. Pronouns must be so used as clearly to indicate the word for which they stand.

UNITY.

1155. Unity retains one predominant object through a sentence, or a series of clauses.

1. Separate into distinct sentences such clauses as have no immediate connection.

2. The principal words must, throughout a sentence, be the most prominent, and the leading nominative should, if possible, be the subject of every clause.

3. Avoid the introduction of parentheses, except when a lively remark may be thrown in, without too long suspending the sense of what goes before.

STRENGTH.

1156. Strength gives to every word and every member its due importance.

1. Avoid tautology, and reject all superfluous words and members. In the following sentence, the word printed in italics should be omitted: “*Being* conscious of his own integrity, he disdained submission.”

2. Place the most important words in the situation in which they will make the strongest impression.

3. A weaker assertion should not follow a stronger; and, when the sentence consists of two members, the longer should be the concluding one.

4. When two things are compared or contrasted with each other where either resemblance or opposition is to be expressed, some resemblance in the language and construction should be preserved.

5. A sentence should not be concluded with a preposition, or any inconsiderable word or phrase, unless it is emphatic.

1157. FIGURES OF SPEECH.

1. Figurative language must be used sparingly, and never except when it serves to illustrate or enforce what is said.

2. Figures of speech, when used, should be such as appear natural, not remote or foreign from the subject, and not pursued too far.

3. Literal and figurative language ought never to be blended together.

4. When figurative language is used, the same figure should be preserved throughout, and different figures never jumbled together.

TRANSPOSITION.

1158. As a preparatory step to the important business of composition, the pupil, after he has acquired a knowledge of grammar, may be exercised with great advantage upon the transposition of words and members in sentences, so as to try in how many different ways the same thought or sentiment may be expressed. This will give him a command of language, and prove, at the same time, a source of considerable mental cultivation. It is often necessary to give an entirely new turn to the expression, before a sentence can be rendered elegant, or even perspicuous.

1159. There are chiefly four ways in which the mode of expressing a thought may be varied:—

1. By changing an active into a passive, or a passive into an active verb; as, “The sun *dissolves* the snow”—“The snow *is dissolved* by the sun.”

2. By inversions or transpositions, which consist in changing the order in which the words stand in a sentence; as, "Competence may be acquired by industry"—"By industry competence may be acquired,"

3. By changing an affirmative into a negative, or a negative into an affirmative, of an entirely contrary character; as, "Virtue promotes happiness"—"Virtue does not promote misery."

4. By either a partial or an entire change of the words employed to express any sentiment; as, "Diligence and application are the best means of improvement"—"Nothing promotes improvement like diligence and application."

EXERCISES ON TRANSPOSITION.

The Roman state evidently declined, in proportion to the increase of luxury. I am willing to remit all that is past, provided it can be done with safety. A good man has respect to the feelings of others in all that he says or does. Bravely to contend for a good cause is noble; silently to suffer for it is heroic.

EXAMPLE OF TRANSPOSITION.

The Roman state evidently declined, in proportion to the increase of luxury. In proportion to the increase of luxury, the Roman state evidently declined. The Roman state, in proportion to the increase of luxury, evidently declined.

EXERCISES ON VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

His conduct was less praiseworthy than his sister's. It is better to be moved by false glory than not to be moved at all. I shall attend the meeting, if I can do it with convenience. He who improves in modesty as he improves in knowledge, has an undoubted claim to greatness of mind. The spirit of true religion breathes gentleness and affability.

EXAMPLE OF VARIETY OF EXPRESSION.

His conduct was less praiseworthy than his sister's. His sister's conduct was more praiseworthy than his. His sister's mode of acting was entitled to more praise than his. His conduct was less entitled to praise than that of his sister, &c.

1160. Another exercise, not destitute of utility as a foundation for composition, consists in giving the pupil, especially if very young, a list of words, with directions to form from them such sentences as shall contain these words.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Construct a number of such sentences as shall each contain one or more of the following words:—Contentment, behaviour, consideration, elevation, distance, application, respect, duty, intercourse, evidence, social, bereavement, nonsensical, absurdity, elucidate, consternation, temperance, luxury, disarm, expatriate, &c.

LETTERS.

1161. One of the simplest and yet most useful species of composition is letter writing. This species of composition may be practiced either by way of real correspondence between those pursuing the same studies, or it may consist of letters written to imaginary correspondents. The following are a few topics adapted to composition of this latter kind:—

Letter 1.—Write to a friend at a distance. State to him the object of your writing. Tell him what studies you are pursuing, and how you like them. Mention how yourself and friends are. Give an account of some of the alterations which have been lately made, or are now making in your neighbourhood ; and conclude by expressing your desire either to see him or hear from him soon.

Letter 2.—Write to a companion an account of a long walk which you lately had. Tell him whether you were alone or in company. Mention what particular things struck you by the way ; and enumerate all the incidents that occurred of any moment.

Letter 3.—Write to a friend who is supposed to have sent you a present of books, and thank him for such kindness. Tell him the use you intend to make of them ; and inform him to what particular books you are most partial. Conclude by giving some account of those you have been lately reading, and how you like them.

Letter 4.—Write to a friend supposed to be going abroad. Describe to him how you would feel if called to leave your friends and your native country. Express your regret at losing him, but state your hope that you will not forget each other when seas roll between you. Request him to write to you frequently; and advise him to be careful about his health and of the society he keeps.

Letter 5.—Write to a friend at a distance, and give him an account of a sail which you lately had in a steamboat. Mention what places you visited, and state the objects that most delighted you. Tell him how long you were away, what sort of weather you had, and what were your feelings upon returning home.

Letter 6.—Write to a friend an account of the church you were at last Sabbath. Tell who preached. Mention the psalms or hymns that were sung, and the portions of Scripture that were read. State the text from which the minister preached ; and give your opinion of the different sermons.

1162. These have been given as mere specimens of the subjects upon which the student who has acquired a knowledge of grammar may be required to write. The prudent and skilful teacher will be enabled to multiply and vary them at pleasure to any extent.

REPRODUCTION.

1163. Another method of exercising the minds of pupils in composition, consists in reading some simple story or narrative, till such time as they are acquainted with the facts, and then directing them to express these in their own words. A still further, and perhaps even a simpler method, is, to take advantage of a young person's having given some account of what he has either seen, heard, or read, and desire him to commit to writing what he has stated orally.

THEMES.

1164. The next step in composition is the writing of regular themes. The subject, however, should always be such as is not above the capacity of the person who is desired to compose, for, if it is, the whole benefit resulting from the exercise will be nullified.

1165. A theme is a regular, set subject, upon which a person is required to write; or the dissertation that has been written upon such a subject. Some of the simplest subjects for themes are those drawn from natural history, or natural philosophy. At all events they should not, in the first instance, be drawn from subjects of an abstruse and abstract character.

1166. The following may serve as specimens in this department:—

Theme 1.—The horse.—1. Describe what sort of animal the horse is. 2. Tell some of the different kinds. 3. Mention the various ways in which this noble animal is serviceable to man. 4. State what would be the consequence of wanting him. 5. Mention the treatment to which he is entitled, and the cruelty of ill-using such a creature.

Write themes upon the *cow*, the *dog*, the *sheep*, *poultry*; and follow the same plan as that followed in writing upon the horse.

Theme 2.—The sun.—1. Begin by stating what the sun is. 2. Tell all you know of its size, figure, and distance from our earth. 3. Mention the effect it has upon the earth, and the benefits we derive from it. 4. State what would be the consequence if the sun were extinguished; and what our feelings ought to be toward the Supreme Being for such an object.

Write themes upon the *moon*, the *stars*, *fire*, *air*, *water*; and in all, follow the same plan.

Theme 3.—Day and night.—1. Tell what you mean by day and night. 2. State whether they are always alike long, and what is the advantage arising from their length being different at different seasons. 3. Mention the different purposes to which they are adapted. 4. Say of what the continued succession of day and night is fitted to remind us, and how this should lead us to act.

Write themes upon the *different seasons*, and upon *mountains*, *rivers*, and the *tides of the sea*; and follow a similar plan in the whole.

Theme 4.—On composition.—1. Explain what you mean by this term. 2. Point out the necessity of studying this art, by showing how much it contributes to add to the value of one's knowledge. 3. Mention what is necessary to fit one for composing well. 4. State the means by which skill in this art is to be obtained.

Theme 5.—On company.—1. Explain what you mean by company. 2. Show how natural it is for man to seek society. 3. State the danger of keeping either too much company, or of keeping bad company. 4. Point out the advantages of good company.

Write themes upon *conversation*, *study*, *improvement of time*, *choice of books*, *memory*, and the *different organs of sense*, &c.; and in all, follow the same method as you did in writing on Company.

Theme 6.—Narratives.—Describe the place or scene of the actions related, the persons concerned in, the time, posture of affairs, state of mind, motives, ends, &c., of the actors; results.

Write themes upon *the discovery of America, the French war, the Revolutionary war, the battle of Bunker's Hill, the French revolution.*

Theme 7.—Dissertations on remarkable events in sacred or profane history.—The place, the origin, the circumstances, results, moral influence, &c.

Following this or a similar arrangement of parts, write a composition on: *the creation, death of Abel, the deluge, the world after the flood, the tower of Babel, the Israelites in Egypt, their deliverance from it, the giving of the law from Sinai; the advent of the Messiah—his death—his resurrection, destruction of Jerusalem, &c., the siege of Troy, rise and fall of the Roman empire, the crusades, the burning of Moscow, the battle of Waterloo, the death of Bonaparte, &c.*

Theme 8.—Give an account of some of the most distinguished characters in different ages of the world—warriors, statesmen, artists, philosophers, poets, orators, philanthropists, divines—mentioning what is known respecting their country, parentage, education, character, principles, exploits, influence on society for good or evil, death.

1167. The following list of Themes is selected from Parker's Exercises in Composition:—

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. On Attention, | 26. On Fortune, | 51. On Ocean, |
| 2. " Adversity, | 27. " Fear, | 52. " Pride, |
| 3. " Ardor of Mind, | 28. " Forgiveness, | 53. " Party Spirit, |
| 4. " Art, [cal] | 29. " Government | 54. " Poverty, |
| 5. " Attachment, lo- | 30. " Grammar | 55. " Principle, |
| 6. " Anger, | 31. " Greatness, true, | 56. " Perseverance, |
| 7. " Air, | 32. " Genius, | 57. " Patriotism, |
| 8. " Benevolence, | 33. " Habit, | 58. " Politeness, |
| 9. " Beauty, | 34. " Honor, | 59. " Providence, |
| 10. " Biography, | 35. " Happiness, | 60. " Punctuality, |
| 11. " Bad Scholar, | 36. " Humility, | 61. " Poetry, |
| 12. " Charity, | 37. " Hypocrisy, | 62. " Piety, |
| 13. " Clemency, | 38. " History, | 63. " Religion, |
| 14. " Compassion, | 39. " Hope, | 64. " Reading, |
| 15. " Conscience, | 40. " Indolence, | 65. " Sincerity, |
| 16. " Constaney, | 41. " Industry, | 66. " Summer, |
| 17. " Carelessness, | 42. " Ingratitude, | 67. " Spring, |
| 18. " Curiosity, | 43. " Justice, | 68. " Sun, |
| 19. " Cheerfulness, | 44. " Learning, | 69. " System, |
| 20. " Contentment, | 45. " Love of Fame, | 70. " Truth, |
| 21. " Diligence, | 46. " Music, | 71. " Time, |
| 22. " Duplicity, | 47. " Moon, | 72. " Talent, |
| 23. " Early Rising, | 48. " Novelty, | 73. " Vanity, |
| 24. " Envy, | 49. " Night, | 74. " Virtue, |
| 25. " Friendship, | 50. " Order, | 75. " Wealth, |
| 76. Knowledge is power, | | 82. Love of Country, |
| 77. Progress of Error, | | 83. The Power of Association, |
| 78. Progress of Truth, | | 84. The Immortality of the Soul, |
| 79. Government of the Tongue, | | 85. The Uses of Knowledge, |
| 80. Government of the Temper, | | 86. Power of Conscience, |
| 81. Government of the Affections, | | 87. The Power of Habit, |

88. Life is Short,
89. Miseries of Idleness,
90. Never too old to Learn,
91. Public Opinion,
92. Diligence insures Success,
93. Idleness destroys Character,
94. Contrivance proves Design,
95. Avoid Extremes,
96. Visit to an Almshouse,
106. "An honest man's the noblest work of God."
107. Every man the architect of his own fortune.
108. Man, "Mysterious link in being's endless chain."
109. "A little learning is a dangerous thing."
110. How blessings brighten, as they take their flight.
111. Advantages derived from the invention of the mariner's compass—of
the telescope—the steam-engine—the art of printing—of gunpowder.
112. History of a needle—a cent—a Bible—a beaver hat.
113. Description of a voyage to England—coast of Africa--Constantinople
—South America—East Indies—China.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX I.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

In all languages, the distinction of nouns with regard to sex, has been noted. Every substantive denotes either a male or female, or that which is neither the one nor the other. This accident, or characteristic of nouns, is called their *Gender*. In English, all words denoting male animals, are considered as *masculine*; all those denoting female animals, *feminine*; and those denoting things neither male nor female, are termed *neuter*. "In this distribution," says Crombie, "we follow the order of nature, and our language is, in this respect, both simple and animated." Both in Latin and Greek, many words denoting things without sex, are ranked as masculine or feminine, without any regard to their meaning, but simply on account of their terminations. In French, all nouns are regarded as either masculine or feminine, which is a still greater departure from the order and simplicity of nature, for which the English language on this point is distinguished.

Some have objected to the designation of three genders; they think that as there are but two sexes, it would be more philosophical and accurate to say there are only two genders; and to regard all words not belonging to these, as without gender. A little reflection, I think, will show that this objection has no just foundation, either in philosophy or fact, and that the change it proposes would be no improvement. It has probably arisen from confounding the word *gender*, which properly signifies a *kind*, *class*, or *species*, (Lat. *genus*, French *genre*), with the word *sex*, and considering them as synonymous. This, however, is not the case; these words do not mean the same thing; and they can not be properly applied in the same way. We never say, "the masculine sex, the feminine sex;" nor "the male gender, the female gender." In strict propriety of speech, the word *sex* can be predicated only of animated beings; the word *gender*, only of the term by which that being is expressed. The *being* man, has sex, not gender; the *word* man, has gender, not sex. Though therefore it is very absurd to speak of three sexes, yet it may be very proper to speak of three genders; that is to say, there are three classes (genders) of nouns, distinguished from one another by their relations to sex. One denotes objects of the male sex, and is called *masculine*; another denotes objects of the female sex, and is called *feminine*; and the third denotes objects neither male nor female, for which a name more appropriate than the term *neuter* need not be desired.

The term "*Common gender*," applied to such words as *parent*, *child*, *friend*, etc., does not constitute a distinct class of words, which are neither masculine, nor feminine, nor neuter, but is used for convenience,

merely to indicate that such words sometimes denote a male, and sometimes a female. Instead of "common," those who prefer it, may call such words "masculine or feminine."

APPENDIX II.

THE PRONOUNS MINE, THINE, ETC.

Some grammarians have given it as their opinion that *mine*, *thine*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, are not pronouns in the possessive case, but that they are something or other in the nominative or objective case, but never in the possessive. This is surely a very singular notion. The anomaly which such an idea would introduce into our language, would be a curious one. According to this view, these words could belong to no part of speech hitherto defined. They are not *nouns*, for they are not the *names* of anything—nor *adjectives*, for they do not qualify nouns, nor can ever be joined with them—nor *pronouns*, for they never stand instead of a noun, but always instead of a pronoun and a possessive pronoun together. They have always the sense of the possessive case, and are always construed just as the possessive case of a noun is, not followed by a noun; and yet they are never in the possessive case. These words, standing by themselves, have no fixed or determinate meaning, and yet in sentences they may have as many different meanings as there are objects capable of being possessed. *Mine*, for example, may mean *my horse*, *my farm*, *my hat*, *my stick*, *my gun*, *my*—anything you please. And besides this, those of them which are singular in form, according to analogy, may have a *plural* verb, and those of them which are plural may have a *singular* verb; thus, "John's books are new; *mine* are old;" again, "John's house is built of stone; *ours* is built of brick." Such is the result to which this notion leads us; and if these words are not possesives, but in the nominative or objective, as some allege, there certainly are no more curious words in the English, or in any other language.

APPENDIX III.

What AS A RELATIVE.

"Various opinions have been entertained about the nature of the relative *what*. It is said to be a 'compound relative pronoun, including both the antecedent and the relative, and equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*.' Though this may seem plausible, yet we shall find, on examination, that *what* is nothing more than a relative pronoun, and includes nothing else. Compare these two sentences:—

"'I saw *whom* I wanted to see'—

"'I saw *what* I wanted to see.'

"If *what*, in the latter, is equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*, *whom*, in the former, is equivalent to *him whom*, or *the person whom*. 'Who steals my purse steals trash,' is equivalent to *he who*, or, *the man who*.

"And, on the same principle, when the relative is omitted, the antecedent should be represented as equivalent to the relative and the antecedent.

Thus, ‘I saw the man I wanted to see.’ Here, *man* should be represented as equivalent to *the man whom*.

“The cause of the error in respect to *what*, is, that the antecedent is never expressed with it. It is not like the word *who*, which is used both when the antecedent is expressed, and when it is omitted. The relative *that*, however, was formerly used in many cases where we use *what*, that is, with the antecedent omitted. A few examples of this will help us to ascertain the nature of *what*; ‘We speak *that* we do know.’—*English Bible*.—‘I am *that* I am.’—*Ib.*

“‘Who had been seen imagine mote thereby,
That whylome of Hercules hath been told.’—*Spenser.*”

“‘Eschewe *that* wicked is.’—*Gower.*

“‘Is it possible he should not know what he is, and be *that* he is.’—*Shaks.*

“‘Gather the sequel by *that* went before.’—*Ib.*

“In these examples, *that* is a relative, and is exactly synonymous with *what*. No one would contend, that *that* stands for itself and its antecedent at the same time. The antecedent is omitted because it is indefinite, or easily supplied.”—*Butler's Grammar*, p. 48.

These remarks appear to me just, and conclusive on this point.

APPENDIX IV.

IS AS EVER A RELATIVE?

That the word *as* should not be considered a relative in any circumstances, I think is plain from the following considerations:—

1. It has neither the meaning nor the use of a relative. Its office is simply to connect things compared, and, together with its antecedent word, to express the idea of *equality*, *likeness*, &c., between them; thus, “James is as tall as his father.”—“Your hat is such as mine.”

2. It does not, like a relative, relate to a noun or pronoun before it, called the antecedent, nor stand instead of it, or of any other word, but is related only to the comparative word, *as*, *such*, *so*, &c., in the preceding clause. Thus, in the sentence, “As many as received him,” the second *as* relates to the first, and the two convey the idea of equality. Again, “Send such books as you have.” Here, *as* refers not to *books*, but to *such*. Take away *such*, and *as* can not be used.

3. *As* can never be used as a substitute for another relative pronoun, nor another relative pronoun as a substitute for it.

4. In sentences in which *as* is said to be a relative, it evidently has the same meaning and use as those in which it is allowed to be only a conjunction. Compare the following examples: “As many *as* five men received a reward.”—“As many *as* received him.”—“As many *as* they can give.” In all these, the phrase “as many as” means, and is felt to mean, the same thing—equality of number. There surely, then, can be no propriety in calling the second *as* a conjunction in the first sentence, and a relative in the other two. The same thing will be evident if we change the antecedent word. Thus, “Such books *as* these are useful.”—“Such books *as* are useful.”—“Such books *as* you can give.”

5. If the word *as* in the preceding sentences and clauses is a relative pronoun, for the same reason alleged for this, the word *than* must be a relative in those which follow. The construction is precisely the same: "More books *than* were wanted."—"More books *than* are useful"—"More books *than* you can give." Now, if, in the second of these examples, *than* is not a relative in the nominative case before *are*, nor in the third a relative in the objective case after *can give*, what need for considering *as* a relative in the same position, in the same construction, and for the same purpose, to denote comparison? There is the same ellipsis in both, and the same words necessary to be supplied, in the one case, as in the other. Thus, "More books than [those which] were wanted."—"More books than [those which] are useful," &c. So, "Such books as [those which] were wanted."—"As many books as [those which] are necessary," &c.

APPENDIX V.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

The fourth class of pronouns, sometimes called *adjective pronouns*, and sometimes *pronominal adjectives*, is usually subdivided into *possessive*, *distributive*, *demonstrative*, and *indefinite*. Of these, the first or *possessive* are derived from the personal, and in meaning are strictly pronouns, being always the representative or substitute of a noun; but in construction they are adjectives, and are always joined with a noun, and hence are appropriately denominated adjective pronouns, i. e. pronouns used adjectively. By some, they are classed with adjectives, and called *pronominal adjectives*.

In many grammars the possessives *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are set down as the possessive case of the personal pronouns, with *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, making two forms of the possessive case: thus, *my* or *mine*, *thy* or *thine*, etc. Which of these methods is adopted in teaching or studying grammar, is a matter of no practical moment: some grammarians adopt the one, and some the other, merely as a matter of taste, without any controversy on the subject. The classification in the text is preferred as being on the whole more simple, because the possessives *my*, *thy*, etc., like the adjective, can never stand alone, as the possessive case does, but must be supported by a noun following them; thus, we say, "It is the king's;" "It is yours;" but we can not say, "It is your;"—the presence of a noun being necessary to the last expression.

This classification is favored by the analogy of other languages both ancient and modern. The possessives *my*, *thy*, &c., for example, have precisely the same meaning as the Latin *Meus*, *mea*, *meum*; or the French *Mon*, *ma*; or the German *Mein*, (or *meiner*), *meine*, *mein*; or the Anglo-Saxon (which is the mother of the English language), *Min*, *mine*, *min*; and they are used in precisely the same way. There seems, therefore, to be no good reason for giving them a different classification. Indeed, the only circumstance which renders it possible to regard them as a possessive case in English, is, that like the English adjective they are indeclinable.

Had they been declinable, like the Latin or French, etc., they never could have been used as a possessive case.

The words belonging to the other three divisions, have been found more difficult to arrange in a satisfactory manner. They seem to occupy a sort of middle ground between adjectives and pronouns, and are sometimes used as the one and sometimes as the other, without the strict and appropriate character of either. They are generally adjectives in construction, having a noun expressed or understood, which they serve to limit or restrict in various ways. On the other hand, with few exceptions, they are so often used without a noun, or as its substitute, that they are not improperly regarded as pronouns, though in a sense less strict than the others; thus, "Let *each* esteem *others* better than *themselves*."—"Among men, *some* are good, *others* bad, *none* perfect." "All things come alike to *all*," &c.

From this equivocal or rather double character of these words, they have been variously arranged by different authors. Some, among whom are Grant, Crombie, Hiley, Sutcliffe, Allen, Cooper, Brown, &c., class them with adjectives, and call them "*Pronominal Adjectives*"; and others, such as Lowth, Priestly, Smart, Murray, Lennie, Booth, Churchill, Wright, Cobbet, Kirkham, Smith, and many others, class them with pronouns, and call them "*Adjective Pronouns*." Since all are agreed about the use of these words, it seems in itself a matter of less importance to which of these two classes they be attached, or whether they are more appropriately called *Pronominal Adjectives*, or *Adjective Pronouns*.

APPENDIX VI.

THE VERB.

Though there is little, if any, difference of judgment among grammarians, as to what a verb is, yet all have probably found it a difficult matter to give an accurate and at the same time a brief definition of it; and, accordingly, nearly all grammars differ in their definition of this part of speech. The old definition, that "a verb is a word which signifies *to be*, *to do*, or *to suffer*," though unexceptionable as any, as far as it goes, is yet greatly defective in stating nothing respecting the *functions* or *use* of this part of speech.

The use of the verb in simple propositions is to *affirm* or *declare*, and that of which it affirms is called its *subject* or *nominative*. This is always the office of the verb in the *indicative*, *potential*, or *subjunctive*. In the use of its other parts, however, namely, the *imperative*, *infinitive*, and *participles*, there is properly no affirmation, though the action or state expressed by the verb in these parts is clearly seen to be the act or state of *some person* or *thing*, and which for that reason is strictly and properly, though not technically, its *subject*. Thus, "For me to die is gain," is a simple proposition, containing two verbs, the first of which, *to die*, in the

infinitive expresses no affirmation, though it evidently, without affirming, attributes *dying* to a person, expressed by the word *me*. So when we say, "I see a man *walking*," the word *walking* expresses an act of the person *man*, though there is properly no affirmation. In like manner, when I say, "Do this," the verb *do* attributes action imperatively to the person addressed, but there is no affirmation. To speak of "affirming imperatively" is certainly not very intelligible, though, for want of a better expression, we sometimes use it in a loose sense.

For these reasons, the definition of a verb which says it is "a part of speech which *asserts* or *affirms*," appears to me to be defective. It states one function of this class of words, but excludes, or at least *does not include*, others. It gives, as the distinguishing characteristic of a verb, that which does not belong to it in several of its parts and uses. *It is too restrictive.*

The definition formerly given in my "Principles of English Grammar," is liable to an objection of an opposite kind: *it is too general*, and not sufficiently distinctive. A verb does, indeed, "express an action or state," but there are other words that do so also. Nouns such as *love*, *desire*, *wish*, *hope*, &c., and most verbal nouns, such as *eruption*, *fiction*, *collision*, *diffusion*, *progression*, &c., express *action*, and many words, both nouns and adjectives, express a *state*.

The definition given in the text, though perhaps not unexceptionable, occupies a middle place between these extremes, avoids the indefiniteness, of the old definition, and is probably less liable to objection than most of those which have been given.

APPENDIX VII.

DIVISION OF VERBS.

The division of verbs into *Transitive* and *Intransitive* is now so generally adopted by grammarians, instead of the former division into Active, Passive, and Neuter; and its propriety and simplicity so obvious, that it seems now unnecessary to argue the point. Of this division, it is needless only to observe—

1st. It divides all verbs into two classes, Transitive and Intransitive, distinguished by a clear and definite characteristic, derived from their use in the construction of sentences. To the first belong those which are used transitively, whatever be their meaning or form; and to the second, all that are used intransitively, whether they denote action or not (319).

2d. This arrangement and nomenclature leaves the term *Active* and *Passive* at liberty to be applied exclusively to the two forms which all transitive verbs assume, called the *active* and the *passive voice*.

3d. It dispenses with the term *neuter* altogether, as applied to verbs, and leaves it to be appropriated in grammar to the designation of gender only.

APPENDIX VIII.

THE PRESENT INDICATIVE PASSIVE, AND THE PARTICIPLE IN *ing*, IN A PASSIVE SENSE.

According to the definition, the passive voice expresses, passively, the same thing that the active does actively. For example, "Cæsar conquered Gaul," and "Gaul was conquered by Cæsar," express precisely the same idea. This, however, is not always done by the regular passive form in the *present tense*, though it generally is done in the other tenses. Thus, it will be felt at once that the expressions, "Cæsar conquers Gaul," and "Gaul is conquered by Cæsar," do not express the same thing.

In regard to this matter, there are evidently *two classes* of verbs; namely, those whose present-passive expresses precisely the same thing passively, as the active voice does actively, and those in which it does not.

I. To the *first* of these classes belong—

1. All those verbs which, in the regular present-passive, imply a *continuation of the act*; such as *to love, to hate, to regard, to esteem, to envy, to please, &c.* Thus, "James loves me," and "I am loved by James," express precisely the same idea, and consequently *continuance* is implied as much in the passive form as in the active. Hence, "*is loved*" is a true passive, in both form and meaning. In verbs of this class the progressive form in the active voice is seldom used, because it would express the same thing generally as the common form; "James loves me," and "James is loving me" (though improper), express the same thing.

2. To this class belong all verbs when used to express *general truths*, or what is *usual* or *customary* from time to time. Thus, "Vinegar *dissolves pearls*"—"Vice produces misery"—"The cobbler *mends shoes*"—"Masons *build houses*," &c. These verbs, used *in this way*, express precisely the same thing in the regular passive form as they do in the active. Thus, "*Pearls are dissolved by vinegar*"—"Misery *is produced by vice*"—"Shoes *are mended by the cobbler*"—"Houses *are built by masons*," &c. In verbs used in this way, the progressive form is not employed. The use of it would change the meaning from a general expression to a particular act. Thus, "*Vice is producing misery*," would immediately direct the mind, not to a *general truth*, but to a *particular case*. But, again, when these verbs express a particular act, and not a general truth, the present active and the present passive express *different ideas*; thus, "*James builds a house*," represents an act in progress; but when we say, "*A house is built by James*," the act or operation of building is represented *as completed*.

3. To this class belong all verbs which by the figure called *vision* (1048-5), are used in the present tense to express what is past. Thus, actively, "*Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, enters Italy*." Passively, "*Gaul is left by Cæsar, the Rubicon is crossed, Italy is entered*." In all these, used in this figurative way, the present-passive expresses the same thing, as the present-active.

II. The *second* class of verbs consist of those (perhaps the greater number), whose present-passive implies that the act expressed by the active voice has ceased, and the effect or result only remains as a finished

act, and as such is predicated of the subject. Thus, "The house is built." Here it is implied that the act of *building* is completed, and has ceased, and the *result*, expressed by *built*, is predicated of the house. In all verbs of this kind, the past participle, after the verb *to be*, has reference to the *state* resulting from the act as predicated of, or qualifying the subject of the verb, and not to the act itself. Strictly speaking, then, the past participle with the verb *to be* is not the present tense in the passive voice of verbs thus used; that is, this form does not express passively the *doing* of the act. These verbs either have no present passive, or it is made by annexing the participle in *ing*, in its passive sense, to the verb *to be*; as, "The house *is building*."

It is supposed by some that "*is built*," though in the form of the present-passive, really is a present-perfect; because it represents the act as completed, and because the perfect-definite, in Latin, is often translated by this form into English. Due consideration, however, I think will show that it differs quite as much from the *present-perfect* as it does from the *present*. To be satisfied of this, compare the following expressions: "This garment *is torn*," merely asserts the present *state* of the garment, with no reference to the *act* but what is implied. But when we say, "This garment *has been torn*," the reference is chiefly to the *act* as having been done, with no reference to the *state* of the garment but what is implied. The one asserts that the garment remains torn, the other does not—it may have been mended; the latter is the regular passive of the present-perfect active, the former is not. This will perhaps be more clearly perceived by means of another example: "This house *has been painted*, but the paint *is worn off*." This is good English. But if we say, "This house *is painted*, but the paint is worn off," we should assert a contradiction.

There is properly no passive form, in English, corresponding to the progressive form in the active voice, except where it is made by the participle in *ing*, in a passive sense; thus, "The house is building"—"The garments are making"—"Wheat is selling," &c. An attempt has been made by some grammarians, of late, to banish such expressions from the language, though they have been used in all time past by the best writers, and to justify and defend a clumsy solecism, which has recently been introduced chiefly through the newspaper press, but which has gained such currency, and is becoming so familiar to the ear, that it seems likely to prevail, with all its uncouthness and deformity. I refer to such expressions as "The house is being built"—"The letter is being written"—"The mine is being worked"—"The news is being telegraphed," &c. &c.

Respecting this mode of expression, it may be noticed—

1. That it had no existence in the language till within the last fifty years. This, indeed, would not make the expression wrong, were it otherwise unexceptionable, but its recent origin shows that it is not, as is pretended, a *necessary* form.

2. This form of expression, when analyzed, is found not to express what it is intended to express, and would be used only by such as are either ignorant of its import, or are careless and loose in their use of language. To make this manifest, let it be considered, first, that there is no progressive form of the verb *to be*, and no need of it; hence, there is no such

expression in English as *is being*. Of course, the expression "*is being built*," for example, is not a compound of *is being* and *built*, but of *is* and *being built*; that is, of the verb *to be* and the *present participle passive*. Now, let it be observed that the only verbs in which the present participle passive expresses a continued action are those mentioned above as the first class, in which the regular passive form expresses a *continuance* of the action; as, *is loved*, *is desired*, &c., and in which of course the form in question (*is being built*) is not required. Nobody would think of saying, "He is being loved"—"This result is being desired."

In all other verbs, then, the present participle passive, like the present tense, in the second class of verbs mentioned above, expresses, *not a continued action*, or the *continued receiving of an action*, but that the action had *ceased*, and the *result* only exists in a finished state. Thus, "Our arrangements *being made*, we departed."—"The house *being finished*, was immediately occupied."—"Our work *being finished*, we may rest," &c. In all such expressions, the present participle passive represents the action as now *finished*, and existing only in its *results* (509). This finished act, then, can not be made *unfinished* and *progressive*, by being asserted of a subject, which is all the verb *to be*, as a copula, can express. Hence, it is manifest that *is being built*, if it mean anything, can mean nothing more than *is built*, which is not the idea intended to be expressed.

3. For the same reason that *is being built*, &c., is contended for as a proper expression, we should contend also for "Has been being built"—"Had been being built"—"Shall have been being built"—"Might have been being built"—"To be being built"—"To have been being built"—"Being being built"—"Having been being built." When all these shall have been introduced, our language will be rich indeed.

4. The use of this form is justified only by condemning an established usage of the language, namely, the passive sense in some verbs of the participle in *ing* (457). In reference to this it is flippantly asked, "What does the house *build*?"—"What does the letter *write*?" &c.—taking for granted, without attempting to prove, that the participle in *ing* can not have a passive sense in any verb. The following are a few examples from writers of the best reputation, which this novelty would condemn: "While the ceremony *was performing*."—*Tom Brown*. "The court *was then holding*."—*Sir G. M'Kenzie*. "And still *be doing*, never *done*."—*Butler*. "The books *are selling*."—*Allen's Gram*. "The work of the temple *was carrying on*."—*Dr. Owen*. "To know nothing of what *is transacting* in the regions above us" —*Dr. Blair*. "The spot where this new and strange tragedy *was acting*."—*E. Everett*. "The fortress *was building*."—*Irving*. "An attempt *is making* in the English parliament."—*D. Webster*. "The church *now erecting* in the city of New York."—*N. A. Review*. "This movement *was making*."—*Cooper*. "These things *were transacting* in England."—*Bancroft*.

5. This new doctrine is in opposition to the almost unanimous judgment of the most distinguished grammarians and critics, who have considered the subject, and expressed their views concerning it. The following are a specimen: "Expressions of this kind are condemned by some critics; but the usage is unquestionably of far better authority, and (according to my apprehension) in far better taste, than the more complex phraseology

which some late writers adopt in its stead ; as, “The books are now being sold.”—*Gould Brown*. “As to the notion of introducing a new and more complex passive form of conjugation ; as, ‘The bridge *is being built*,’ ‘the bridge *was being built*,’ and so forth, it is one of the most absurd and monstrous innovations ever thought of.” “The work *is now being published*” is certainly no better English than, “The work *was being published*, *has been being published*, *had been being published*, *shall or will be being published*, *shall or will have been being published*, and so on through all the moods and tenses. What a language shall we have when our verbs are thus conjugated !”—*Brown’s Gr. of Eng. Grs.* p. 361. De War observes : “The participle in *ing* is also passive in many instances ; as, ‘The house is building’—‘I heard of a plan forming,’ &c.—Quoted in *Frazer’s Grammar*, page 49. “It would be an absurdity, indeed, to give up the only way we have of denoting the incomplete state of action by a passive form” (viz., by the participle in *ing* in the passive sense).—*Arnold’s English Grammar*, p. 46. “The present participle is often used passively ; as, ‘The ship is building.’ The form of expression, *is being built*, *is being committed*, &c., is almost universally condemned by grammarians, but it is sometimes met with in respectable writers ; it occurs most frequently in newspaper paragraphs and in hasty compositions. See *Worcester’s Universal and Critical Dictionary*.—*Weld’s Grammar*, pp. 118 and 180. “When we say, ‘The house is building,’ the advocates of the new theory ask, ‘Building what ?’ We might ask, in turn, when you say, ‘The field ploughs well’—‘Ploughs what ?’—‘Wheat sells well.’—‘Sells what ?’ If usage allows us to say, ‘Wheat sells at a dollar,’ in a sense which is not active, why may it not also allow us to say, wheat is selling at a dollar, in a sense that is not active ?”—*Hart’s Gram.*, p. 76. “The prevailing practice of the best authors is in favour of the simple form ; as, “The house is building.”—*Well’s School Gram.*, p. 148. “Several other expressions of this sort now and then occur, such as the new-fangled and most uncouth solecism ‘*is being done*,’ for the good old English idiom ‘*is doing*’—an absurd periphrasis driving out a pointed and pithy turn of the English language.”—*N. A. Review*, quoted by *Mr. Wells*, p. 148. “The phrase ‘*is being built*,’ and others of a similar kind, have been for a few years insinuating themselves into our language; still they are not English.”—*Harrison’s Rise, Progress, and Present Structure of the English Language*. This mode of expression [the house is being built], is becoming quite common. It is liable, however, to several important objections. It appears formal and pedantic. It has not, as far as I know, the support of any respectable grammarian. The easy and natural expression is, the house is building.—*Prof. J. W. Gibbs*.

APPENDIX IX.

FIRST AND SECOND, ETC.

Two or more adjectives connected, with an article intervening, belong to the same noun ; as, “A red and white rose”—that is, one rose partly red and partly white. Hence, care should be taken to see that the qualities expressed by adjectives so used be consistent, or such as may be found in one object. Thus, it would be improper to say, “An old and young

man"—“A round and square hole”—“A hot and cold spring”—because a man can not be *old* and *young* at the same time; nor a hole *round* and *square*; nor a spring *hot* and *cold*. Hence—

When two or more adjectives express qualities that belong to different objects of the same name, and that name expressed only with the last, the article should be placed before each adjective. Thus, “A red and a white rose” means *two* roses—one red, and one white. In this case, it makes no difference whether the qualities expressed by the adjective be consistent or not since they belong to different individuals. Thus, we can say, “A young and an old man”—A round and square hole”—“A hot and a cold spring”—that is, one man *young*, and another *old*, &c. It is therefore manifest that we can not properly say, “The first and second page”—“The fifth and sixth verse”—“The Old and New Testament”—because no page can be at once *first* and *second*—no verse *fifth* and *sixth*, and no Testament *Old* and *New*. It is equally improper in principle to say, “The first and secoud pages”—“The fifth and sixth verses” because two adjectives can not be joined with a word *jointly* which can not be joined with it *separately*. We can not say “The *first* pages,” nor “the *second* pages,” when we mean but *one first* and *one second*. Besides, when the ellipsis is supplied, it stands “the *first* page and the *second* page,” and the omission of the first noun can not, on any correct principle, affect the number of the *second*. In many cases, too, the use of the plural, if it would relieve from the absurdity of uniting inconsistent qualities in an object, will as certainly lead into ambiguity. For if, to avoid the absurdity of saying “the old and young man,” we say “the old and young men,” the latter expression may mean fifty, or a hundred, or any number of men, instead of two—one young and one old. Notwithstanding, however, usage has prevailed over principle in this as well as in other cases; and it has become quite common to say, “The first and second verses”—“The Old and New Testaments”—“The hot and cold springs”—“The indicative and subjunctive moods,” &c. Where no ambiguity exists in the use of such expressions, they must be tolerated. The correct expression, however, in all cases in which *one* is intended, is made by repeating the article with the adjective, and retaining the noun in the singular; thus, “The first and the second verse”—“The Old and the New Testament”—“The hot and the cold spring,” &c. Or, “The first verse and the second,” &c.

APPENDIX X.

TWO FIRST—THREE LAST, ETC.

The expressions, *two first*, *three last*, and the like, have been opposed and ridiculed by some, on the ground, as they allege, that there can be only *one* first, and *one* last. The objectors evidently have not well considered their position; for—

1. The terms *first* and *last* do not necessarily mean only *one*. *First*, according to Webster, means, “preceding all others.” The *two first*, then, means the *two* preceding all others, and the *three last* means the *three* succeeding all others—expressions in which there is surely nothing either ridiculous or absurd.

2. If we say, "The first *days* of summer"—"The first *years* of our life"—"The last *days* of Pompeii," which nobody doubts, then it is not true that there can be only *one first* and *one last*, and so the ground of the objection fails. If we can say, "The *last* days of summer," why not the *two last*, or the *three last*.

3. The expression objected to is used by the best authorities in the language, and has been in use hundreds of years, and therefore, on the well-known maxim "*Usage* is the law of language," if it were absurd, it can not be rejected. The following are examples, most of them mentioned by Mr. Wells: "The four first acts."—*Bp. Berkeley*.—"The three first monarchies."—*Warburton*.—"The two first persons."—*Latham's Eng. Gram.*.—"My two last letters."—*Addison*.—"The two first lines."—*Blair*.—"The three first generations."—*E. Everett*.—"The two first years."—*Bancroft*.—"The two first days."—*Irving*.—"The two first cantos."—*A. H. Everett*.—"The four first centuries."—*Prescott*.—"The two last productions."—*N. A. Review*.—"The four first are—poetical."—*Cheever*.—"The three first of his longer poems."—*Southey*.—"The two last schools."—*Johnson*.—"The six first French kings."—*Macaulay*.

4. This expression is, in some cases, evidently better than the other. It is probably always so, when the number characterized as *first* or *last*, constitutes a majority of the whole. When we say, "the first four," there is evidently a reference to a second four, or a last four. But if the first four constitute a majority of the whole, there remains no second four to justify the reference. Thus, when we say, "The first four acts of a play were well performed," there remains only *one* to which any other reference can be made. On the other hand, when a whole is divided into equal portions, each containing a certain number, as the recurrence of the census every five years—of the Olympic games every four—of the Sabbath every seven days—of four lines in each stanza of a poem, and the like—then the expression, *first four*, *second four*, *last four*, &c., is preferable, because it implies a reference to other portions of equal extent. Also, even when there is no such reference, it is often properly used, especially when the number is *large*; as, "The first hundred"—"The last thousand," &c.

5. Several distinguished scholars and grammarians have examined this point, and expressed their views respecting it as follows: "It has been doubted whether the *cardinal* should precede or follow the ordinal numeral."—*Atterbury* says in one of his letters to Pope: "Not but that the four first lines are good."—"We conceive the expression to be quite correct, though the other form be often employed to denote the same conception."—*Crombie's English Syntax*, p. 240.—"Some grammarians object to the use of the numerals *two*, *four*, &c., before the adjectives *first* and *last*. There seems, however, to be no good reason for the objection, and the expressions *two first*, *two last*, &c., are fully sanctioned by good usage."—*Wells's Grammar*, p. 137.—The following is a note on the same page: "It has been fashionable of late to write the *first-three*, and so on, instead of the *three first*. People write in this way to avoid the seeming absurdity of implying that more than *one* thing can be *first*; but it is at least equally as absurd to talk about the *first four*, when, as often happens, there is no *second four*."—*Arnold*.—"Surely if there can be only

one last, one first, there can be only ‘*a last one,’ ‘a first one.*’ I need only observe, that usage is decidedly in favor of the former phraseology.”—Grant.

“The only argument against the use of *two first*, and in favour of substituting *first two*, so far as I can recollect, is this: In the nature of things, there can be only *one first* and *one last* in any series of things. But is it true that there can never be more than *one first* and *one last*? If it be so, then the adjectives *first* and *last* must always be of the singular number, and can never agree with nouns in the *plural*. ‘We are told that the *first years* of a lawyer’s practice are seldom very lucrative.’—‘The poet tells us that his *first essays* were severely handled by the critics, but his *last efforts* have been well received.’ Examples like these might be produced, without number; they occur everywhere in all our standard writers. * * * When a numeral adjective, and a qualifying epithet, both refer to the same noun, the *general rule* of the English language is to place the numeral *first*, then the qualifying epithet, and then the noun. Thus we say, ‘The two wise men’—‘The two tall men,’ and not ‘The wise *two men*’—‘The *tall two men*.’ And the same rule holds in superlatives. We say, ‘The two wisest men’—‘The two tallest men,’ and not ‘The *wisest two men*’—‘The *tallest two men*.’ Now, if this be admitted to be the general rule of the English language, then it follows that *generally* we should say, ‘The *two first*’—‘The *two last*,’ &c., rather than ‘The *first two*’—‘The *last two*,’ &c. This, I say, should *generally* be the order of the words. Yet there are some cases in which it seems preferable to say, ‘The *first two*’—‘The *last two*,’ &c.”—Dr. Murdoch.

[THE END.]

Sarah Campbell
London E7V
City

Sarah Campbell
London E7V
City

201
202

Sarah Campbell
London & Co.
City

Yara & Daniel Lee

Sarah Campbell
London, C. 21
City



m a b na nb

(m) $na(1 - m)b\beta(s)$

$naL = na$ $naS = nb\beta$

$na + nb = naL + naS \therefore m(1 - s)$

$$\begin{array}{r} b) a(\beta \\ \hline b\beta \\ \therefore b(d \\ \hline d) d^2 \\ \underline{d^2} \end{array}$$

